AMERICAN AGRICULTURIST.

Designed to improve the Farmer, the Planter, and the Gardener.

AGRICULTURE IS THE MOST HEALTHFUL, THE MOST USEFUL, AND THE MOST NOBLE EMPLOYMENT OF MAN.—WASHINGTON.

CONDUCTING EDITOR,
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HINTS ON CHEESE MAKING.

[Continued from page 242.]

21. Before proceeding with our own hints on cheese making, derived from experience and gathered from various other sources, we will here give an outline of the process of Mrs. S. W. Lincoln, of Cheshire, Mass., which we find in the Massachusetts Agricultural Report for 1854. The night's milk is set in tubs, and if the weather is warm, coolers filled with ice or cold water are set into the milk. In the morning the cream is skimmed off and put into milk and warmed, and then mixed with the night's and morning's milk. The whole is warmed to eighty-six degrees (86°), by pouring in hot water. Rennet is then added, sufficient to produce a thorough coagulation; in about forty minutes the curd is cut into fine square pieces, and allowed to stand till the green whey begins to rise, when it is broken up with the hand. This operation is performed with great care, letting the curd pass gently between the fingers without squeezing it in the hand, as that would decrease the quantity of cheese. After settling, a quantity of whey is warmed in a kettle and put into the curd, raising it to a temperature of ninety-five degrees (95°). The curd is again broken, the whey heated as before and added to the curd, so as to raise the temperature to 106°. It then remains, with occasional stirring until the curd becomes elastic, or, as the old cheese makers say, "squeaks between the teeth." Then the whey is again drawn off, the curd cooled with *cold* water, and salted with a tea-cupful of salt to 16 pounds of cheese. It is then pressed 24 hours, being turned over in the time, and then removed to a cool dairy-room, greased, colored according to fancy, and turned *every* day until cured. This description of a very good method is, of itself, almost a handbook for the merest novice in cheese making. There are, however, many hints as to the details of the different operations, the philosophy of cheese making, &c., which are worthy of attention.

22. *Varieties of Cheese.*—There are five general varieties of cheese, viz: the creamed or whole milk; the half creamed, made from the night's milk skimmed and morning's new milk; the uncreamed or skim-milk; the buttermilk cheese; and the potato cheese. These general varieties have almost numberless sub-varieties, depending upon the particular method pursued in the manufacture, the addition of other substances, and upon the quality of milk used, which depends upon the breed of cows and the season, kind of food, &c. Thus from the same milk the quality of the cheese will vary, according to the temperature to which the milk is heated; the mode in which it is warmed, the time during which the curd stands, the way in which it is treated, the completeness of separation of the whey, the kind of salt and mode in which it is applied, whether runnet or acids are used, the addition of extra butter or cream, the coloring or flavoring matter, the size and method of curing the cheese, &c. It will thus be seen that the intelligent cheese maker has a wide field for study and observation.

23. *Creamed or Whole Milk Cheese.*—All cheese consists essentially of the casein (curd) mixed with a certain proportion of fatty matter (butter), sugar of milk and water. We may here remark, that there is from 35 to 55 pounds of water in 100 pounds of cheese—the average proportion in creamed cheeses being about 40 parts in the 100, while skim-milk cheese contains about half its weight of water. The creamed or whole milk cheeses are made directly from new milk, or by uniting two or more milkings, none of the cream being separated. When carefully made, the casein in curdling entangles and retains within itself the greater proportion of the butter or cream, so that a cheese thus made contains nearly as much butter as casein. When night's-milk is mixed with that of the morning, the cream of the former having in part risen to the surface, there is considerable difference of opinion as to whether this cream, which has been once separated, can ever be so well mixed with the milk again that a portion of it will not flow out with the whey, and render the cheese less rich. We have examined all available analyses of cheese, but none of them having been made with reference to this question, they throw little light upon it. We incline to the opinion that there is some loss, and probably sufficient to pay for after skimming of the whey, where it is not practicable to use all the milk new. In new milk the butter is in exceedingly small particles, and is easily entangled in the curdling casein; but in rising in the form of cream, these particles aggregate in globules of considerable size, and no after agitation will reduce them to their original minutely divided condition. Indeed, agitation has the tendency to unite them more firmly, as in the process of churning. If, however, the cream is made warm, and the mixing be done so gently as not to break the oil sacs, and the curdling is somewhat rapid, there is little doubt but that a larger portion of the butter is retained in the cheese. Mrs. Lincoln's process (21) is probably the best that could be adopted in similar cases.

24. *Half Creamed Cheese.*—This variety is usually made by adding the skimmed night's milk to the new draught of the morning, but it really contains considerable more than half of the cream, unless the skim-milk is in much the largest proportion, since, under any circumstances, all the cream can not be removed at the end of twelve hours. Taking into account the circumstances mentioned above (23), that there is a loss of cream after it has once risen, it is quite probable that half creamed cheeses are most profitable; for the butter obtained from the cream will more than compensate for the difference in market value between the whole creamed and half creamed cheeses. For home use, the half creamed are superior to the whole creamed as food in warm weather, or for laboring persons at any time.

MEDITERRANEAN *vs.* WHITE WHEAT.—By a letter from the southern part of Michigan, one of the principal wheat growing regions of the State, says the Elmira Republican, we learn that the fly has ruined large tracts of White wheat; so much so that no attempt will be made to harvest, and that many of the fields have been plowed under, and summer crops substituted. On the other hand, equally large tracts of the Mediterranean, growing side by side with the White, have been left untouched and are looking thrifty, with the promise of a heavy yield.

This is an important fact to farmers, and will lead them to consider whether the advantages claimed for the White over the Mediterranean are not over-balanced by the risk attending its culture.

SOAKING WHEAT IN BLUE VITRIOL.

In the Agricultural Gazette for May 5th, J. C. C. attributed the loss of a wheat crop to soaking the seed in blue vitriol. This called out two replies, one of which we copy:

On reading the statement of your correspondent "J. C. C." of the suspected failure of his wheat crop from the use of blue vitriol as a dressing for the seed previous to sowing, I was involuntarily led to a review of my own practice during a long period of years, when, after trying various ingredients as preventives of smut, I settled down to this as not only the most effective, but the safest antidote to this hateful disease. So strongly am I impressed in its favor that I always maintained, and still continue to maintain, that no farmer need have smutty wheat except through his own negligence in preparing the seed for the drill, dibble, or broadcast. But "J. C. C." objects to it as endangering the germination of the seed, and, in fact, destroying his crop; a serious charge if true, and one which ought not to be made but on good and sure foundations. I for one, at least, am not disposed to rest satisfied without further inquiry as to the strength of the solution, length of time occupied in the immersion of the seed, and various other particulars, of which as yet we are ignorant; for "J. C. C.'s" expression "dressing the usual way" is far too vague not to require further explanation. What is "the usual way?" I protest I know not; and shall thankfully await information thereupon. I know what my own "usual way" was—not on a very small scale either—but to the extent of 50 to 60 acres annually. For the accuracy of the operation I can vouch, always making a point of having it conducted under my own eyes, and very often with my own hands. To prove that I wish not to ask for more than I am perfectly willing to impart myself, I beg to submit the following as my "usual way" of preparing seed wheat, in the firm conviction that if carefully and thoroughly carried out there need be no apprehension of failure. For I may here add that a vast deal more depends on strict attention to the minutiæ of this, as of most other agricultural operations, whether practical or merely experimental, than many, otherwise excellent farmers, may be disposed to think necessary. It is not enough to give general directions to a bailiff or yardman, that you wish your seed wheat prepared after such and such a recipe—you must see to it yourself; and even assist at the most important points by your own personal exertions. I say this without meaning the least disparagement of either the care or judgment of your overlooker; who, when once in possession of your plan of operations (only to be obtained directly from yourself) may, and ought, if conscientious and active, to be trusted to do in your absence what he is fully aware would have been done had you been present. But we must get on, or our steep will never be ready for the drill. Take then a tub or vessel of convenient form for holding 3 bushels of wheat, and a space of some 6 or 8 inches beyond, for skimming, washing, and stirring. Place this tub over a wider but shallower vessel, similar to the underback of a mash-tub; into which the wheat, when washed and skimmed, may, by a cock or other means, be drawn off from the tub above. But we are forestalling matters. Prepare the steep as follows: Dissolve about 3 lbs. of blue vitriol in water (hot if wanted for immediate use, otherwise this is immaterial); to this add water enough fairly to swim the quantity of seed you intend to steep—say 3 bushels; into this liquor then sift gradually and lightly, by means of what in some places is called a reeing sieve, the wheat as above mentioned. The heavy grain will fall to the bottom, leaving the lighter portion, seeds of certain weeds, smut balls (if any), and other rubbish, to float at the top. These must all be carefully skimmed off, and the main body of the wheat below well stirred from the bottom, to make sure that the whole is thoroughly washed and skimmed. This process over, some recommend a prolonged immersion in the liquid of from one to three or more hours; but I never could see any necessity for this. In the first place its adoption would be attended with great additional inconvenience, to say nothing of the extra expense, from the necessary enlargement of the apparatus for steeping and washing a much larger quantity at a time than I have named. As soon, therefore, as you are satisfied that the washing, skimming, &c., is accomplished, and the liquor drawn off into the underback, empty the wheat on to the floor, which latter ought to be thoroughly washed and cleaned between the steeps, and, after spreading it about a little, sift over it enough hot slacked lime to facilitate the progress of drying. The wheat will be fit for drilling or sowing in a few hours, but if even delayed for a day or two will take no harm. The same liquor will serve several steeps, merely replenishing with fresh water and about ¼ lb. of blue vitriol to each succeeding bushel of wheat. Such was my practice during many years of my farming life, nor did I ever experience any failure of plant from the use of this steep, though I certainly have from chamberlye applied too strong and immersed too long. How to account for "J. C. C.'s" failure I know no more than he does; but as he says it was sown when the ground was dry, is it not as fair to presume that the failure was quite as likely to have been occasioned by want of the requisite moisture to cause the seed to germinate properly as by anything in the composition of a steep in such universal use, and, with common care, so harmless as a solution of blue vitriol, even, though much stronger than I applied it?—*S. Taylor, Gloucester.*

GRAFTED CHESTNUT TREES.

The Cincinnati Gazette publishes an interesting letter from Mr. Sheldon I. Kellogg, to the Wine Growers Association, dated Bordeaux, France, on the cultivation of the chestnut. He says:

"I have been much surprised in seeing the great dependence the poorer classes make upon the large chestnut for their daily food. It is cultivated in this neighborhood in great abundance for this purpose. All classes use them more or less; the rich having them daily brought upon their tables as dessert, either boiled or roasted. It is often made into a soup, which is highly esteemed. They are cooked in a multitude of ways, and I know nothing of a farinaceous nature which is so very delicate and nourishing.

"The marron, or large chestnut, is the produce of the wild chestnut after being engrafted. The wild tree, at three or four years of age, is cut square off, say four or five feet from the ground. The stump is then split twice. These splits intersect at right angles at the center of the stump. There is then inserted one good-sized branch of the same tree in every section of the splits, making four branches in each stump. Care is always taken to make the bark of the branches and the bark of the stump join each other as closely as possible. The graft is then surrounded with clay and moss, to prevent the overflow of sap, and it scarcely ever fails of success. The period selected in this climate for this operation is the month of February. The produce of this graft is usually a fine, large, beautifully colored marron, about the size of our buckeyes. They are much more delicate in texture and flavor than our own wild chestnut. They are never eaten without being cooked. The tree is very beautiful."

ADULTERATED GUANOS.

METHOD OF EXAMINATION.

The following we find in the Agricultural Gazette:

The shameless frauds practiced by some dealers have been long known and exposed, but how are such to be detected by practical farmers, who are not chemists, and yet want a supply just at a time when a dealer is at hand and ready to sell? A case of this kind came under my knowledge some time since, when the sale and term of purchase had been settled between the parties. It was then understood that the money was to be paid on the day following (£10 per tun); I therefore had little enough time to effect even a slight quantitative analysis. The sample I received was about four ounces. Having been accustomed to experiment with several varieties, it occured to me that by a few simple processes, it would be possible to attain to a pretty correct idea of the moisture contained in a given weight (which ought not to exceed 10 to 12 per cent) of the quantity of ammonia in the soluble salts, of the insoluble matters, the most valuable of which is the bone phosphate, in its state of extremely minute division. I now, therefore, endeavor to recite, in the most simple terms, the processes adopted by me, and which I now venture to recommend to those who have not at command a more refined analysis: 50 grains of the sample to be examined are dried in a paper placed upon the hob of a grate, then weighed to ascertain the loss of water, and rubbed in a small mortar to a fine powder; two-thirds of the quantity (say 36 grains) of fresh air-slaked lime are, in like manner, placed on the hob of a grate, and equally dried and weighed, and are then triturated together. The weight being accurately noted, they are transferred to a small balanced saucer, moistened with a dessert spoonful of rain water, and stirred with a pointed quill. Ammoniacal gas is immediately developed, but in much greater volume when placed upon the warm grate till dry. The mixture is then to be treated with boiling water sufficient to bring it to a paste, stirred repeatedly and left in heat till dust dry, when the volatile ammonia will have been totally expelled by the lime. The loss of weight will be found to vary according to the quality of the guano. In one experiment made by me it was proved that a mixture of 50 grains of dry guano, and only 26 of lime=76 grains, so treated, had lost 6½ grains. This loss, if assigned to ammonia only, would indicate 13 grains in the 100 of the ammonia actually existing as a base to some or all of those acids which are found in the soluble ingredients of pure and sound guano. If by repeated experiments of the kind, with different samples, certain definite quantities are left, and the loss of weight ascertained, a pretty correct idea of the actual quantity of potential ammonia will be attained, sufficient at all events, to guide the judgement of a discerning practical agriculturist. Professors Anderson and Way concur in the opinion that "there are are only two constituents which practically require to be considered in the estimate of the commercial value of the phosphates." This is admitted, for the phosphates which exist in some of the salts soluble in water contain ammonia. Yet the one most available in turnip culture is the bone earth (phosphate of lime), which remains in the insoluble

matters after water has taken up all that it can dissolve. These insoluble substances include more or less urate of ammonia—a valuable ingredient, but requiring time and accuracy for its development. Estimating it at 12 per cent, and the bone phosphate at 23 per cent; also other organic and saline matters at 16 per cent; with 2 or 3 per cent of sand in all; 47 per cent may be taken (including from 6 to 10 parts of moisture) as the mean average of all the ingredients soluble in rain or distilled water.—JOHN TOWERS.

SWAMP MUCK.

The term *muck* is generally applied by New-England farmers to the mass of vegetable matter usually found in peat swamps in a state of partial decomposition; by English farmers, to rotting straw, &c.; and by the Scotch, to barnyard manure. I use the word in its common signification in this country, and mean by it the dead vegetable substances described. These are the remains of trees and plants, some of which must have lived ages ago, more or less perfectly decomposed, and sometimes extending to a depth of many feet. This substance is made up of different constituents in different localities, and its quality is therefore very variable. Hence we find a great variety of opinions as to the value of swamp muck as a manure. The various estimates of the value of swamp muck range from 33 cents to $3 per cord, and give an average of $1.27; and as there is no reason to suppose that the estimated value is not the real value in each locality, it follows that no general real value can be definitely fixed. This depends on its quality.

Swamp muck is often cold and sour, and requires the addition of lime or exposure to the atmosphere and to frosts before it can be advantageously applied as manure. There are different modes of preparing it for use. The most common is to dig it out, expose it to the frost through the winter, and then put it into the barnyard to be composted with the stable manure. The following statements are from experienced practical men, and each gives the results of the observation of its writer:

A Middlesex farmer says: "I use swamp muck most successfully composted with stable manure, on different varieties of soils, but think it does best on high land of a loamy soil. I notice it is used very extensively by farmers with satisfactory results when composted with other manures thoroughly." A farmer of Worcester county says: "I use it extensively on my hard, clay soils; it works well on dry lands to keep them moist, and on clay soils to keep them light." Another writer from Dukes county follows: "It should be hauled out in the fall, and exposed to the frost during winter, and mixed with stable manure in the proportion of two parts muck to one of manure; it should also be used in the hogpen, barnyard, and barn-cellar. I have found it a good manure on loamy, gravelly, and sandy land, especially for topdressing for grass, when composted as above." A Norfolk county farmer, who has met with great success, says: "The best way of using swamp muck is to dig it and expose it to the sun, air, and rains one year, and then, when in a dry state, place it in a barn-cellar where it will take the droppings of the cattle above until it is thoroughly saturated; then mix it well, and it is ready for use. It is good for all high lands." He estimates it at about three dollars by the cord of one hundred and two bushels. A Middlesex farmer of great experience states that "swamp muck is of different qualities, and varies as much as wood when used for fuel. Peat mud, the older the better, consists principally of vegetable matter. It has most effect on high and dry ground. Wood ashes are the best article to correct its acidity."

Similar accounts come from every section of the State. From Hampshire county we have the following: "The best method of using swamp muck, judging from experiments of my neighbors and my own, is to cart it out in the autumn, expose it to the frost and snows, then spread and plow it in in the spring on sandy, dry soils, or, in other words, on soils of an opposite nature to its own. I plowed in twenty-five loads on one-quarter of an acre last spring, and planted it to early potatoes, corn, peas, cucumbers, squashes, and melons. It was a great preventive against drouth. That ground has been sown to rye, and it looks first rate." And from Plymouth county: "Swamp muck, as also upland soils, are valuable to mix with various kinds of manure to retain and absorb the salts. For upwards of two years I have adopted a different course with my swamp land from any I know of. I employ men with long-bitted hoes, sward hooks, etc., to dig up the hummocks and bushes, in bodies large and small, as is convenient, and pile them in bunches for a few days to dry; after which I select a central bunch, in which I form a cavity or hole near the bottom or surface of the ground. Then I set fire to some of the dryest and most combustible, and as it burns I replenish it from the other bunches, smothering in the coal-pit form, though more combustible, till it burned down to a perfect body of ashes and sand. I have not carried the experiment into full effect as I designed to; but so far as I have used the ashes, they have given me entire satisfaction. Their nature is to improve exhausted lands; and my belief is that they may be spread upon the same land upon which the ashes were made, and increase the growth of English grass. Much has been said upon the subject of reclaiming wet, swampy lands; but after all that has been done, as I understand it, a coat of manure is required to produce a good crop of English grass. Now, if our worthless swamp lands possess the very article required to produce such grass by the simple process as above named, I think it would be an improvement in one point of agriculture."

A farmer of Barnstable county says: "The best compost manure is made in our barn and hog-yards, of swamp muck, sea-weed, and animal manure. Swamp muck and sea-weed are accessible to all who will take the trouble to procure them. My barn and hog-yards are so excavated and dug as to absorb the liquids passed into them. Every spring and summer, after my barnyard is emptied, I replenish it from time to time with swamp muck, peat, sea-weed, and other materials from the farm, which, with the animal manure produced by yarding my cattle, furnish me in the autumn with 200 loads of good compost, which I either stack in the yard, or cart on to the land I intend to plant in the spring. I again replenish the yard, giving me, with the proceeds of my hog-yard, from 100 to 150 loads more in the following spring. In addition, I have for two years past composted, in the field adjoining my peat bog, from 75 to 100 loads of peat (thrown from the pit in summer or autumn) with sea and rock-weed, or ashes and animal manure, which I esteem of equal value to barnyard manure. I estimate the valued of a cord, or four ox-cart loads of barnyard manure composted as above, at from $4 to $5. We esteem the value of this for a corn crop and the improvement of land higher than pure animal manure."

I give one more extract from a farmer of Berkshire county. He says: "I have used swamp muck for a number of years past with good results, by mixing it with yard and stable manures in the proportion of one-third to one-half muck, and consider it worth $1 per load to use for agricultural purposes on soils that are a mixture of loam and gravel."

The testimony is uniformly in favor of composting muck with other manures. Its power of absorbing valuable liquid and gaseous substances is very considerable; and this makes it an excellent substance to mix with guano when the latter is to be used as a top-dressing. The importance of a free use of dry swamp muck as an absorbent of the liquid manures of the barn and stable can hardly be over-estimated. The loss throughout the State from the neglect and consequent waste of these rich manures, which, with a little care, might all be saved, is almost incredible. The attention of farmers was but lately called to this subject; but the value of the substances is ackowledged by some, and efforts are now made to save them by means of the use of muck and loam, either properly composted in the barn cellar, or supplied daily to the stalls of cattle. No judicious farmer should neglect to save all such substances as tend to increase the value and productiveness of his lands. It is poor economy and bad calculation to buy concentrated manures, or to buy any manures abroad, till everything of the kind is saved at home.

From what has been said, we may infer that good dry swamp muck is worth on an average from $1.25 to $1.50 per cord; that it is best on light, loamy, sandy, or gravelly soils; and that it is valuable as a compost with barnyard manures, or with guano.—*Second Annual Report of C. L. Flint, Secretary of Mass. Board of Agriculture.*

ABD-EL-KADER ON HORSE-FLESH.

The great Arab chief first declares that the stallion has greater influence than the mare: "The experience of centuries has established," he says, "that the essential parts of the organization, such as the bones, the tendons, the nerves, and the veins, are always derived from the stallion. The mare may give the color and some resemblance to her structure, but the principal qualities are due to the stallion." We must content ourselves with the assertion that decisive experiments in the breeding of animals confirm the provision of physiologists in contradicting this notion. Mother and father *participate* in the product; not *equally*, but indefinitely. Our limits restrict us to the bare assertion, which would require a volume to demonstrate. Although therefore, as a question of breeding, we can only award to the stallion such superiority as his relative superiority of vigor may give him (for if the mare have the superiority of vigor, owing to her race, health, or age, she will the more preponderate in the offspring), we quite understand the preference of the Arab for the mare, a preference which makes them sell stallions but never mares, unless under the extremities of compulsion. This preference Abd-el-Kader has admirably explained. Not only is the mare valuable as a producer both of stallions and mares, but she is, according to the Emir, more enduring; she better supports hunger, thirst, and the fierce radiance of eastern suns. Like the serpent, her force seems to increase with increase of heat. On the other hand, the stallion has his superiority in certain qualities. He is more rapid, strong, and brave. He has not the serious defect of suddenly stopping during the fight, as the mare will if she espies a stallion. He does not fall when wounded, as soon as the mare. "I have seen a mare whose leg was fractured by a ball, drop at once to the ground, unable to vanquish her agony. I have seen a stallion whose broken leg was held only by the skin, yet he con-

tinued on three legs till he had carried his master from the field, and then he fell. Abd-el-Kader adds that when stallions have proved their great qualities it is almost impossible to procure them, so fabulous are the prices asked. They are only sold to great personages, or extremely rich merchants, who pay for them in thirty or forty instalments, sometimes even by an annuity to the seller and his descendants.—*English Notice of an article in the Revue des deux Mondes.*

DESCRIPTION OF INSECTS.

An insect is composed of three principal parts, consisting of the head, the thorax, and the abdomen. The first contains the eyes, the antennæ (or horns, as they are sometimes called), the palpi or feelers, and the mouth, or feeding apparatus. The thorax is that part lying immediately behind the head, and to it are attached the legs and the wings, and the elytra, or wing-cases of those insects which possess them. In all insects the rudiments of wings may be discovered. The abdomen lies behind the thorax, and contains the intestines, the organs of generation, and some parts of the organs of respiration; in many cases it is terminated by a tail, as in Stellatarum, or the humming-bird hawk-moth; in others, as in the ichneumon, with an apparatus called an ovipositor, that is, an instrument with which it deposits its eggs, and in some cases with a weapon of defense, which can be darted into an enemy, and through it a virulent poison be instilled into the wound; the wasp and bee will immediately occur to my readers as instances of this species of insect. The true eyes of insects are usually what is termed compound, that is, composed of a number of lenses, each of which is capable of perfectly reflecting the object looked at; in some cases these lenses amount to thousands in number. Just imagine this for one moment, and see the wonderful mechanism here displayed. The eye itself, not the eighth of an inch in diameter, and yet that eye to contain ten or fifteen thousand lenses, *each capable of perfectly reflecting an image thrown on it!* In fact, the insect may be said to possess as many distinct eyes as lenses. Even Argus himself, "who boasted of a hundred eyes," must have hidden his diminished head. But this is not all; several insects possess supplemental eyes, if I may so call them. They are situate on the forehead, immediately between the true eyes; they are three in number, and are arranged triangularly; they are called ocelli, or stemmata. Insects are enabled to look before, behind, on all sides, and upwards, at the same time, and from their being thus capable of casting retrospective glances, we may reasonably indulge the hope that the malignant animal, we bipeds so dread, is to them unknown—I mean the backbiter.

The antennæ vary in form and size in all the different orders and species. In some the variation is very strongly marked; in others it is scarcely perceptible, except on very close examination; some are long, and of the same thickness from their base to their extreme point; such are called filiform; others are short, and terminated by a knob or club, and therefore called capitate; others, again, are fringed with teeth like one side of a small toothed comb, and these are called pectinate. The use of these members has been much disputed, and I believe the question is still an unsettled one. I am, however, inclined to believe that they contain the organs of smell, or some distinct sense, which may be intermediate between smelling and sight. It is quite certain that insects possess in a very high degree the sense of smell, they apparently posse s no other organ, which can be the separate seat of that sense, and I have not met with any valid objection (I speak deferentially) to the theory of the antennæ being, in fact, the nose of the insect. In the antennæ of some insects distinct ocelli, or eye-like appearances may be traced with the aid of the microscope. What the use of these ocelli may be, I can not now stop to examine, but it opens up a very interesting point for the investigation of naturalists. Are they eyes, in the proper acceptation of the word? or what purpose do they serve?—Mac, in *Poultry Chronicle.*

THE COMIC POULTRY GUIDE.

Poultry keepers may be divided into two parts: those who keep for fancy, and those who keep for profit. These may again be divided into two: those who keep fowls—first, because it is the fashion; and afterwards, with an object in view: like a young man who smokes—first, because every one else does; and afterwards, in order to black a pipe.

The sailor commences housekeeping by providing a wife, and then a house; but as this system has its inconveniences, we recommend to begin with the house. We know that those who inhabit the lower part of large mansions, always declare that pains and money are lavished on the upper stories at the expense of the "offices," and certain styles are said to be more favorable to universal comfort than others. Now those of whom we treat are indifferent whether the exteriors of their dwellings harmonize with Florentine, Gothic, Hanoverian, Roman, Composite, or Elizabethan.

The talented auctioneer said, "As we are not selling Chatsworth, or Blenheim, we will not dilate on the beauties of those places; we will drop hyberbole, and declare the property we have for sale to possess all the comforts usually found in a six-roomed house." We will follow his example. Our friends require only a southern and western aspect, ample ventilation, but not of the varied character in which our Houses of Parliament, and some of our courts of law, luxuriate; good wide round perches, within two feet of the ground, and a well-gravelled floor. Queen Elizabeth had her rooms strewn with rushes, and these were replaced every day; but in this case it is only necessary to draw a broom slightly over the surface every morning, and even the visits of a sanitary commission may be contempalted without misgiving.

It is a common error to suppose fowls are teetotallers far from it; they will drink beer, and even wine when they can get it. They, nevertheless, have a great aversion to draughts, and the ventilation should consequently be as high as possible above the perches.

The wants of the animals are various, and must be provided for. They must have two apartments: the first will serve only for dormitories, and laying, not for feeding; reminding one of some first floors at the West End, where if is impressed on those who look at them, "they must not dine at home." The other is used for sitting, and should any but a pullet suffering from that want intrude therein, she must be informed in the language addressed to Mr. Ferguson, that she does not lodge there.

And we believe nothing gives so good an idea of a thing as a familiar comparison, we would say the laying and sitting places should be on the ground, but be made something like the boxes of a coffee-room, or those convenient places to be met with in a first-rate pawnbrokers'. With the hens as with visitors to the latter place, privacy is desirable; and neighbors should be unable either to look round or over, or meddle with their neighbor's business.

The house then may be compared to a Club: all its members resort to it. They are all travelers; and provided the arrangements are Conservative of their health, nothing about them will demand Reform. It has another point of similarity: no children are allowed in it. There are many reasons for this. The uncle spoken of in the "Children in the Wood," is not the only one who lusts after the provision made for the nephews and nieces. The delicacies provided for the chickens would be devoured by the old birds. Maternity has its cares and anxieties, as well as its pride and joy, and ladies are not always even-tempered. Mrs. Smith will box her child's ears, and call it an ugly, disagreeable little plague; but if Mrs. Jones were to say the same, there would be active hostilities between them. They should then be kept in the nursery, seeing the common room has many and divers occupants.

As the cares and delights of being a mother will not always extinguish the desire for the pleasures of liberty and single life; and as there is no way of overcoming temptation so effectual as to prevent its gratification; we will close this part by advising that the hen and chickens be removed from the other fowls, and that the hen be put under a rip.—*Poultry Chronicle.*

THE OSAGE ORANGE.

Is it an established fact that this plant is to supersede the Whitethorn as a hedge plant? When I went to South Wales 12 months back, I found there some plants which had been imported from Philadelphia and planted several years; but they had only annually produced a few abortive branches and leaves, and had not made half an inch of wood in 12 months. It is true they were not planted under the most favorable circumstances nor had they much attention afterwards; but Whitethorn, side by side with them, grew as well as it generally grows, making from 1 to 3 feet of good strong growth every season. In June, last year, I had the ground dug round the Osage Orange, gave it a good coat of dung, and soaked the plants occasionally with manure water. This moved the plants a little, but still I only got a straggling branch here and there, 2 or 3 inches long. I have read the pamphlet on this plant by an American seedsman, 15 or 18 months back, and have seen the representations of hedges, which are certainly first-rate in every respect, but I am sorry my own experience does not accord with that published in America. I fear our summers and autumns are not warm enough to ripen this free growing plant, that is, if it ever gr ws freely in this country, and hence it will suffer much from the winter's frost; but I may be mistaken. The examples above specified, however, warrant me in doubting this to be a first-rate plant for our climate, for if it will not grow in a dripping climate like South Wales, or if it will not bear comparison with the Whitethorn there, I fear it will not be of much value through the country generally.—W. P. Ayres, in *Gardeners' Chronicle.*

[Is not the "dripping country" the explanation of its unwillingness to thrive. Ed. G. C.]

A young thief, who was charged with picking pockets, demurred to the indictment, because he had never *picked* them, he always took them as they came.

An editor at the west has such an antipathy against *Roman* Catholics, that he is going to have his paper set up entirely in *italics.*

THE ATMOSPHERE THE GREAT RESERVOIR OF FOOD.

"It is only the girdling, encircling air," says a writer in the North British Review, "that flows above and around us, that makes the whole world kin. The carbonic acid with which to day our breathing fills the air, to-morrow seeks its way round the world. The date trees that grow around the falls of the Nile will drink it in by their leaves: the cedars of Lebanon will take it in to add to their stature; the cocoa nuts of Tahita will grow rapidly upon it; and the palms and bananas of Japan will change it into flowers. The oxygen we are breathing was distilled for us some short time ago by the magnolias of Susquehanna, and the great trees that skirt the Orinoco and the Amazon—the giant rhododendrons of the Himalays contributed to it, and the roses and myrtles of Cashmere, the cinnamon tree of Ceylon, and the forests older than the flood, buried deep in the heart of Africa far behind the Mountains of the Moon. The rain we see descending was thawed for us out of the icebergs which have watched the Polar star for ages; and the lotus-lillies have soaked up from the Nile, and exhaled as vapor, snows that rested on the summits of the Alps."

"The atmosphere," says Mann, "which forms the outer surface of the habitable world, is a vast reservoir, into which the supply of food designed for living creatures is thrown—or, in one word, it is itself the food in its simple form of all living creatures. The animal grinds down the fibre and the tissue of the plant, or the nutritious store that has been laid up within its cells, and converts these into the substance of which its own organs are composed. The plant acquires the organs and nutritious store thus yielded up as food to the animal, from the invulnerable air surrounding it. But animals are furnished with the means of locomotion and of seizure—they can approach their food, and lay hold of and swallow it: plants must await until their food comes to them. No solid particles find access to their frames: the restless ambient air, which rushes past them loaded with the carbon, the hydrogen, the oxygen, the water—everything they need in the shape of supplies is constantly at hand to minister to their wants, not only to afford them food in due season, but in the shape and fashion in which it alone can avail them."

Ice Houses.—We had occasion some years ago to make some inquiries on the subject of ice-houses of Mr. N. J. Wythe, of Cambridge, Mass., who planned many of the extensive commercial ice-houses near Boston. Mr. W. constructs his ice-houses all above ground, with double walls or frames, as described by our correspondent, except that the space between the two walls is 2½ feet at the bottom and 2 feet at the top; the spaces are filled with tan or saw-dust, but charcoal is better, and a thickness of 13 inches we should suppose sufficient to keep ice well. Mr. Wythe sets the posts which are to form the double walls or frames of his house in the ground.

The bottom of the house, he says, should be filled about a foot deep with blocks of wood; these are leveled and covered with wood shavings, on to which a strong plank floor is laid to receive the ice. Upon the beams above the ice a tight floor is laid and covered several inches deep with dry tan or saw-dust. The roof of the house should have a considerable pitch, and the space between the upper floor and the roof should be ventilated by a lattice window at each gable end, or something equivalent, to pass out the the warm air which will accumulate beneath the roof.—*Louisville Journal.*

Horticultural Department.

HYBRIDIZATION OF PLANTS.

A FEW PLAIN EXPLANATIONS FOR TYROS.

The word hybridization occurs very frequently in agricultural journals, and we imagine that all articles with this heading are passed over by many readers, simply because they are not acquainted with the first principles of the subject. We were intending to write out a brief explanation of these principles, but we find at hand a very good article on the subject in the Ohio Farmer, written by Prof. Cassels, of Cleveland, Ohio, who is considered an excellent botanist:

Few subjects within the range of vegetable physiology possess as much interest, either theoretically, or practically, as that of hybridization, or the production of plants by sexual inoculation, partaking more or less of the characteristics of two distinct species. And perhaps there are none whose procreative principles are involved in greater obscurity. Moreover, this interest is still further increased from the fact, that this is the only method by which hybrids are produced.

That the tyro in botany may the better comprehend the *modus operandi* of producing these crosses, and some of the principles connected with their existence, it will be necessary to refer here to the manner by which the seeds of plants are produced in their normal state.

A large proportion of plants contain the male and female organs of procreation in the same flower, the central portion being that of the female, or *pistil*, immediately surrounded by the male organs, or *stamens*, all within the flower. The lower portion of the pistil is the *ovarium*, or seed vessel. About the time the plant blossoms, the ovarium contains *ovules*, the rudimentary seeds; these are vivified by being inoculated with the granules of the *pollen*, which is produced by the *anthers*, or upper portion of the stammens. This is effected in the following manner: soon after the full expansion of the flower, the upper end of the pistil, *stigma*, becomes covered with a glutinous substance, on which the pollen fall from the anthers and adhere; immediately these pollen burst and emit a mucoid liquid, in which are molecular bodies, the supposed vivifying agents of the ovules. These pass down through the substance of the pistil until they come in direct contact with the ovules, which in due time become perfect seeds; and at the point of inoculation is lodged the embryotic plant. Those ovules not thus inoculated, remain unchanged in the seed vessel, and are incapable of germination and growth; such are often met with in pea pods.

Nature, generally true to her trust in causing each plant to "yield seed after its kind," occasionally permits the pollen of one species to be transferred to the stigma of another, resulting in the formation of seeds, yielding plants in many respects essentially different from either parents—these are hybrids. The extent of these deviations can not be very easily ascertained, although I am strongly inclined to the opinion that it is much more frequent than most botanists are willing to allow, as we often hear of new species of plants being discovered, which subsequent investigations ascertain to be hybrids. Yet, from known facts, the conclusion is irresistible, that there are well defined limits to the existence of these crosses, in order that the purity of the races may remain as originally impressed on them by their Creator; but where these boundaries are, or upon what basis they exist, has not yet been ascertained.

Some able botanists have supposed that the same law regulates the production and subsequent fertility of hybrids, in both the animal and vegetable kingdoms. To a certain extent this opinion may be correct, but it is well known that animal perpetuation extends through a greater series of generations among plants, than among the animal tribes; while at the same time they seem to admit of a wider range of crossing. It ought to be recollected, however, that this principle is not intended to recognise the intermixture of mere *varieties* of the same species in either kingdoms, such as take place among the endless varieties of peas, corn, &c., or among our domestic fowls, dogs, &c., but to those of *distinct species*.

The limits, too, of animal propagation among hybrid plants, are more indefinite—so far as known—than among animals; although, in this respect, they are exceedingly variable. Thus, a hybrid, of intermediate parental characteristics, may be obtained, perfect in all its *vital* functions, and fully susceptible of propagation by *subdivisions*, but entirely deficient in the powers of perfecting its *seeds*. In other instances, if complete sterility is not manifest, the progeny is puny, and sickly, rarely extending beyond the third or fourth generation, unless re-inoculated by a healthy staminate plant.

Hybrids are supposed to partake of the peculiarities of the staminate plant in their *floral* developments, while in their foliage they more closely resemble the pistilate parent. A knowledge of this is of much value to the practical hybridizer.

The most important practical points connected with hybridization are, which plants, in common cultivation, will intermix, and which will not? and how these points may be determined; for one of the grand secrets in the successful cultivation of all plants raised from seeds, depends on their purity and perfection. And when intermixture is effected, deterioration and sterility will sooner or later follow.

Unfortunately this subject, although of vast importance to all cultivators, is still involved in doubt and uncertainty, and nothing has yet been developed which can be used with certainty in practice. The priciples controlling and regulating this action, have hitherto eluded detection, and all that is known on the subject is mere speculative conjectures, based on very limited observation.

The Dean of Manchester, who has devoted more time to the subject than any other cultivator of hybrids, is firm in the belief that they can not be obtained, by any known process, from species of different genera; and he adds, "where such hybrids have been reported, it is presumptive evidence that the true principles of their classification have been overlooked." On the other hand, many well defined species of the same genus, can not be made to intermix, even by our best manipulators. Thus, Prof. Landley has often tried to cross the gooseberry with the currant, both species of the genus *Ribes*, but without success. He has also attempted, with the same result, crossing the apple and pear, both species of *Pyrus*; the raspberry with the blackberry, both species of the genus *Rubus*. He observes, "it is hard to say within what limits hybridizating may be effected; and whenever attempted, it can only be regarded as a game of chance, played between man and plants."

The general rule adopted by hybridizers is, that plants only which are nearly allied, are susceptible of crossing. But the exceptions are so numerous as almost to destroy this generality. Thus, the *Thuja filiformis* is a hybrid between the Red Cedar and the American Arbor Vitæ; and plants have been

obtained from crossing the Rhododendron with the Azelias; while it is highly probable that the range of exceptions will continue to widen with observation and experiment.

Varieties of the same species readily cross with each other; hence the great variety observed in our cultivated peas, beans, corn, oats, &c. In these cases, there is a constitutional similarity of organization which favors sexual intermixture; but in different species, there doubtless exists a molecular arrangement peculiar to each, which may or may not favor hybridization; of the existence of which, however, we have no infallible exterior index whereby these peculiarities can be determined.

PYRAMIDAL FUCHSIAS.

As decidedly the best collection of Fuchsias shown at Sydenham on Saturday last consisted wholly of plants of this shape, I give you my plan of growing them, and I hope that Mr. Boussie, the exhibitor of the group in question, will favor your readers with his mode of cultivation next week. I put a few old plants in a warm pit or vinery, where the temperature ranges about 55°, about the end of January or beginning of February, in order that they may have pushed out plenty of young wood by the middle of March. I then take off what cuttings I can get from each sort, preferring the shortest jointed wood. First prepare as many four-inch pots as you may require, taking care that they are well drained, and the compost of a sharp open nature—coarse river sand intermixed with leaf-mold will be found to answer very well, with about one inch of silver sand on the top to induce the cuttings to root freely. Water gently with a fine rosed pot, then plunge the pots in a propagating pit, where there is a gentle moist bottom-heat, where in the course of three weeks they will have made roots enough to stand potting off. You may pot off singly into three-inch pots in a light open sifted compost of rich loam, leaf-soil, and sand, equal parts, and if you have any bottom-heat to spare they will be the better to be plunged in it for a day or two, to give the young roots a start. They may now be removed to a warm pit or vinery, or whatever you find most convenient, where the atmosphere is kept moist, which will insure a strong, healthy and vigorous growth. When you find the pots full of roots repot them into six-inch pots, using for this shift a good rich compost of turfy loam two parts, one of old rotton cow-droppings, leaf soil and sand. As this will be their last shift this season, care must be taken to provide good drainage; this can be secured by putting in plenty of potsherds, with two or three bits of open turf or moss over all. As the plants will now be pushed strongly, they must be tied to a neat stake, as they will be sending out laterals or side shoots. As the making of these side branches secures the formation of the plant, a little weak sheep dung liquid manure will be found very beneficial at this period of their growth. As the first tier of laterals has made their first joint, pinch it at that; this will not only enable you to have two shoots from each lateral, but will cause the leader to push away, and furnish you with plenty of side wood. The four first tiers of laterals will be enough to pinch this season, the rest may be allowed to grow on. They will be forming nice little plants now, so they may as well be taken to the greenhouse or conservatory, where, with a gay profusion of flowers, they will assist in keeping the house "dressy" for a short time. By the middle of November water should be withheld gradually, in order to ripen the wood, and they may be placed in a dry cold pit, or any out-of-the-way place, such as under the greenhouse stage for instance, where they must remain all winter, as they will require no more attention till the end of February, when a little water may be applied sparingly to induce them to start; the knife must now be applied to cut back the side shoots that were pinched last year, to the second joint on the wood they made after they were pinched, and a couple of tiers of single shoots to the second joint, the rest to the first, and the leader to within four inches; thus you will have a pyramidal basis to work on. Place them now in a warm vinery, and they will soon show indications of rapid growth. After they are fairly started turn them out of their pots, and shake off all loose soil, and examine the roots; repot them now in ten-inch pots, using strong fibery loam of a rich texture, old cow dung, leaf soil and sand, equal parts, well mixed. As stated for last season, attend well to drainage, as they will require no more pot room this season; replace them again in heat, and pinch in according to the directions laid down for last season, always aiming at having the plant broad and full at the pot, and tapering to the top. Pinching, should, however, be stopped after the first of June, for by the middle of the month they should get a prominent place in the conservatory, where, by July, they will be the objects of greatest admiration in the house; liquid manure must not be omitted upon any account, at least three times a week, as this is now the only thing the plant will derive its nourishment from, and will cause it to bloom right on till October, when it will be getting unsightly, and may be removed out of doors to make room for some other favorite. When cold nights set in remove them as before to a cold pit, &c. No more attention will be necessary till spring, when they may be pruned and started according to the time they are wanted in bloom. They can be had in bloom by putting a few into heat by the beginning of January, about the middle of May; others started accordingly, will enable you to have them in flower all the summer. Mr. Bousie's plants, to be so fine, were doubtless struck in autumn; mine are chiefly for display late in summer.—W. F., in *Gardener's Chronicle*.

SARRACENIA DRUMMONDI.

Visitors to Chatsworth, in the summer and autumn of 1849, were scarcely more surprised at the glorious aspect of the Victoria Lily, than at the exquisite beauty of this plant, many large specimens of which decorated a neighboring stove among rare Orchids of the richest hues and the most interesting forms.

It was, we believe, originally introduced by the late Mr. Drummond, who met with it in Florida, near the town of Apalachicola. It has since been found abundantly, by Dr. Chapman, on the western borders of the river of the same name, below Ocheesee. It, therefore, inhabits the swamps of a region which, during summer, experiences a tropical heat, as in some measure indicated by the presence of Orchidaceous Epiphytes, such as Epidendrum Magnoliæ and tampense.

The pitchers of this plant are from 18 inches to 2½ feet long, perfectly erect and straight, with very much the form of a postman's horn. Their color is of the most vivid green, except at the upper expanded end, where they are brilliantly variegated with white, red, and green. The rim of the orifice of the pitchers is slightly folded back, from the front towards the back, where it expands into a broad roundish arched cover. much undulated and crisped. In the inside this cover is clothed with long hairs, which partially disappear towards the entrance of the pitcher, at which point there is a considerable exudation of sweet viscid matter, apparently secreted by the hairs which exist there. The flower is of a dingy purple color, roundish, about 2½ inches in diameter, with five blunt acuminate sepals, five obovate inflexed petals, and a pale green diluted five-angled membraneous stigma, which is nearly as long as the flower itself; each angle is divided into two short lobes, beneath which, in a fold, lies the real stigmatic surface. These flowers have little beauty, and are by no means the object of the gardener's care.

The so-called pitchers are in reality the leaves of this plant, in a very singular condition; the pitcher itself being the leafstalk, and the cover its blade. By what mode of development this kind of structure is produced has never yet been conclusively shown. It has been thought that the pitcher is formed by the folding together, in its earliest infancy, of the two sides of a flat leafstalk, the line of which union is indicated by a firm elevated rib, which proceeds from the base to the opening of the pitcher, as if to stiffen and sustain it; but this is not certain, and it is more probable that the pitcher is the result of a hollowing process, coëval with the first growth of the pitcher itself, and anologous to that which produces the Rose, or the cup at the bottom of the calyx of Eschscholtzia, or the cups that appear accidentally upon cabbage leaves.

If the exact nature of the pitcher is thus undecided, we are still further from a knowledge of the use for which so singular an apparatus is destined. To the common idea, that nature intended it to hold water, arise these objections: that water is not found in the pitcher except after rains or heavy dews, and that plants which grow naturally in bogs can hardly require any unusual apparatus for supplying them with water. Others think that the pitcher is a contrivance for detaining insects in captivity till they perish and decay, the putrefaction of these creatures conducing to the nutrition of the plant. But there is no apparent reason why the Side-saddle flower should require this sort of special nutriment more than its neighbors in the same bogs, which have no pitchers. This, however, is certain, that if the pitchers were intended for fly-traps, they could hardly have been more ingeniously contrived. It is the honey of the mouth of the pitcher that tempts the insects to their destruction; and, accordingly, they are found in abundance at the bottom. In the plant now before us we count, in the month of February, about a dozen, two of which are wasps; and Mr. Croom says that he found in one of his a large butterfly (*Papilio Turnus*). Reversed hairs keep them there without hope of escape. As the sides of the pitchers consist of very lax cellular tissue, containing large cavities in every direction, and as starch grains in abundance escape from the sides when wounded, it is a question whether this starch, converted into sugar by the vital force of the pitcher, may not serve to sweeten the water in which the imprisoned insects meet a miserable end?

The manner in which the North American Side-saddle flowers are grown at Chatsworth is explained in the following memorandum, which is applicable to the more common species as well as to that which is the immediate object of the present article:

"The stove is decidedly the most suitable place for these species making and maturing their growth, at which time they require much warmth and moisture. A temperature of from 80° to 100°, with plenty of water at the roots, and syringing three times a day, from March till September, we have found to suit them the best. During their

season, a greenhouse would probably answer the ends of cultivation better than the stove; at all events, the plants should be kept in a dry cool atmosphere, from 40° to 60°, not higher. The best time for potting is January, and the best material for that purpose is silver sand and sphagnum, well mixed with a portion of peat and potsherds, broken quite small. It is important to have plenty of drainage, and no fear need be entertained of excess in this particular. It has been customary at Chatsworth to place the pots in saucers which have been kept full of water during the whole of the summer season. We do not, however, attach any importance to this practice. The plants will thrive equally well without saucers. Pitchers are usually formed in October, and continue perfect for three months. The number of pitchers on an individual plant of S. Drummondi varies from 14 to 23. We have measured individual pitchers of this species, and find the maximum length 2 feet 3 inches, and the maximum girth at the *top*, 6 inches. Flowers usually open in March and April. By removing the flower-buds as they appear, the succeeding pitchers become much finer." —*Paxton's Flower Garden.*

APPLE-TREE BORER.

Having been for many years very much troubled with the borer in my apple trees, last spring I determined, if possible, to find out their origin, and I believe I succeeded. Allow me to give you an account of the transaction.

I sawed off a small tree, which was badly eaten by the borer. I then split into it so far as to discover four borers, one of which was far more advanced in its state of existence than either of the others, and which, I supposed, might come out that season in another form. I carefully preserved the tree until the 10th day of August, when I saw that the insect in the most advanced state was dead. I then, for the first time, took it out from the tree to examine it very particularly, that I might know its like, should I discover it alive. Its head, eyes, feelers and body, were perfectly formed—its wings, partly. Indeed, it was so far formed and perfect, that I had an accurate idea of the bug it had been destined to form, had it not been molested. I then went out among my apple trees for the purpose of finding its like. The third day I found the bug, and knew it to be the same at first sight. I brought it into the house, and put it with a smooth and fresh limb of an apple tree, under a glass. It readily fed on the bark. During the day it was very dull, but at night was exceedingly brisk and active. As soon as it was dark, it would commence piercing a row, about an inch in length, of very small holes through the bark, and then with its sharp teeth or cutters, which it seemed to use like a pair of shears, by putting one cutter in one hole and the other in the next, it, apparently with great ease, cut the bark from one hole to another, and so continued until it had cut each and every hole into the other. By this means, it made a perfect slit in and through the bark, the whole length of the row of holes, which, as I have before said, was about an inch in length. It would then make use of its tail as a pry, and with it raise up the bark so far as to enable it to deposit its eggs under it. In this way it continued to deposit from two to four egs every night, until the middle of September. My examinations of its operations was by the light of a lamp, which did not disturb it at all. After I had seen it deposit its eggs, as I supposed, I examined, in the day time, to see if I could find them. I had no difficulty in finding them—they were about the size of a pin-head, but considerably flattened. After noticing the marks on the limb under the glass, I could with ease discover all those marks that were made on my trees the last season by the bug; and by lifting up the bark, in every instance, find the egg. I could also find the places where the bug had fed on the bark of the tree, as it did on the limb under the glass. From what I have seen of the borer, I have no doubt that it remains in the worm state three years at least, and perhaps much longer, in the tree. I presume the egg is not hatched until the next season after it is deposited. During the last year the borer remains in the tree, it bores up through the wood, leaving nothing but a slight covering of bark over the hole, and remains there while it is passing from the worm to the bug state. When transformed, it readily removes the bark and comes out, leaving a round and smooth hole behind, as large and in some cases larger than the largest nail-gimlet. It has by many been supposed that this hole is the one through which the worm enters the tree: but I am certain, from observation, it is not so—it is the hole through which the bug makes his exit from tho tree, while the hole below is the one where the egg was deposited, and through which the borings and other matters are cast out.

The bug is seven-eights of an inch in length, white body and head, with three brown stripes from the top of the head to the extremity of the shell that covers the wings, leaving two white stripes between. The eyes of the insect are very black. I still have the insect in my possession, though his legs have fallen off, and he is otherwise somewhat mutilated.

Thinking that the above facts, communicated to those whose leisure and attention are directed to such subjects, may be of use, in suggesting a remedy for the evil, has induced me to communicate the facts to you. As to everything above related as *facts*, you may rely upon them as *such*. I can not have the least doubt that I have discovered the origin of this troublesome insect, the borer.

If a thick coat of lime be kept on the tree from the ground two feet up, from the time the bug comes out, which may be the first of July, though I think not until August, and be kept on until October, I think it will prevent the bug from troubling the trees. I washed some of mine last year in this way, and in no instance could I discover any trace of a bug on them. This wash will not kill those borers that are already in the tree, but I think it will prevent any more eggs being deposited so long as the trees are thoroughly coated with lime. This wash assists, also, in discovering the borers which have just commenced their existence; for you will find the lime to be stained with a reddish color over the spot where the young borer lies, long before any borings are cast out.

That you may have a perfect idea of the operation of the bug, I will here give you a specimen of the row of holes he bores, and of the cuts or slits from one hole to the other, thus:

—o—o—o—o—o—o—o—

Row of holes and the cuts from hole to hole.

This row of holes runs with the grain of the bark, or up and down on the tree, always on a smooth spot on the bark, so far as my observation has gone. One egg only is deposited in one of those slits of an inch long. A row of holes is made for every egg.—Wm. B. Grant, in *Maine Farmer.*

Gender Incorrect.—"Off she goes," said Mrs. Smith to her spouse, as they started by the railway from London Bridge. "You are wrong," said Mr. Smith, "for this is the *mail* train."

ON THE DISEASES OF PLANTS.

BY M. F. E. GUERIN MENEVILLE.

Some observations recently made, tend to confirm an opinion expressed last year, to the effect that the great epidemic from which so many plants, and vines more especially, have been suffering, is due, if not solely at least principally, to influences of temperature. The observations upon which this opinion was based have become during this last year very numerous, and have been made in the departments of the Var, Bouches du Rhône, Basses-Alpes, Vaucluse, Gard, Drôme, Ardèche, Isère, &c. After having examined the epidemic in the Basses-Alpes during the whole time that the silk-worms were hatching, I determined to extend my inquiries to the ten departments just named, proceeding from the south northwards. I thus ascertained that the disease disappeared not only, as I had formerly ascertained, in proportion to the hight of the plants above the sea, but also in proportion to their northern situation. Neither in the Alps nor in Paris was there any disease. In the Alps, as in Paris, the disease, when it existed at all, was only to be found on plants sheltered by walls and exposed to the south or east, or on plants in small town gardens where, in consequence of the artificial atmosphere, the disease made its appearance whatever aspect the plants had. I noticed it principally in fields of Saintfoin, on cereals, Melons, Gourds, Tomatoes, &c., Vines, Roses, Mulberries, Walnuts, and other fruit trees. and even on the Alders in our valleys. The Saintfoin, for example, after progressing admirably from December to February, languished, and became covered with Oidium to such an extent that the strong smell of diseased Vine which it emitted when cut, caused alarm, lest the crop should prove injurious to cattle fed upon it. All the corn, and especially that on well exposed hills, looked admirably at the same period of the year when vegetation ought to have been stationary, and the plants perhaps covered with snow; but the corn in the plains, in the large valley of the Durance, as well as that of the higher land in the department, remained small, low, and exhibited no unusual development. Later, during the months of April, May, and even June, the corn on the hills with fine aspects, and which was already in ear and about to flower, became exposed to a low temperature and a cold damp; the plants became covered with rusty black spots, their leaves curled, and in spite of incessant cold rain, appeared to suffer from drouth. The corn in the plain, in cold soil, with harvest almost always a fortnight late, developed slowly, and as usual; the bad weather had no effect on it, and the harvest was good, while the corn on the hills and intermediate lands, although so fine in December, January, and February, did not even yield the seed from which it sprung. A curious circumstance, showing that the disease of the corn is due to a too high winter temperature, is that all those growers who sowed their corn late had fair crops. The Mulberry trees were out early and exposed to all those cold rains which destroyed the early silkworms. Some of the trees were seen in full leaf as early as Easter. Later, all the leaves became covered with rusty spots, which I examined with great care. In some cases the disease was so bad that the leaves curled up and dried, and became utterly useless as food for silkworms. Walnut, and many other trees were just as bad, their leaves also being covered with rusty spots. The Vine was worse than ever. The cold rains of May, caused the disease to appear a fortnight late, and this gave some hopes that the malady had, if not disappeared, at all events greatly decreased; but it soon ap-

peared that the plants were seriously affected, more so even than in the preceding years. Nevertheless such was the variety of circumstances under which my observations were made that I was able to ascertain by examinations, as well on a large as on a small scale, that my theory of caloric influence explained every phenomenon satisfactorily established. Thus it appears quite certain that all valleys having large streams of water, and so situate as to be exposed during winter to cold northerly winds, are more or less free from the ravages in question. The north slopes of hills are generally free also, and certain elevated tracts of country, whether in the south or middle of France, suffer but little, unless it be in those spots which are sheltered by irregularities in the soil. *Comptes Rendus.*

American Agriculturist.

New-York, Thursday, July 12.

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THE TRIBUNE ON SALT.

The literary ability with which this cotemporary is conducted, gives a currency to its agricultural department that it would never have attained had that department depended entirely on its own merits. For this reason we are under the necessity of occasionally noticing some of its peculiarities. In the issue of June 17th, we find an editorial on salt, closing with these words:

"Salt as a medicine is but little known. A teaspoonful dissolved will serve as a good emetic; and homeopathic doses will often cure sickness at the stomach. It is good for colic, and very valuable as a reviver of a person stunned by a fall. In apoplexy, salt is good internally and externally. Bathing in salt water has cured many invalids. Salt is as good to kill worms in the intestines as it is in land. In our every-day diet, however, we use salt to excess."

We are unable to obtain from this dissertation any very clear ideas of the relation of salt to the animal system, and we are not sure that the writer had any. His conceptions are about as well founded as those of the man who got up in the night to see what the weather was, and by mistake opening the wrong window, thrust his head into the pantry, and told his wife it was very dark out of doors and smelt like cheese.

It is true that a bucket full of salt water poured down a man, after the fashion of sailors in "drossing the line," will make the unfortunate recipient of it throw up the contents of the stomach; but we were not aware that a teaspoonful would have any such effect. Pereira, we see, is equally behind in this matter, since he mentions two or three *table*-spoonfuls as necessary for an emetic.

As to the homeopathic doses spoken of, we are in the habit of using them daily—in fact we may say, almost hourly; for as all the methods of washing culinary and drinking utensils are mere processes of dilution, and as the fiftieth dilution is more potent than any of a less figure, it follows not only that a vessel that has once contained salt can never be freed from the impregnation, but that each successive rinsing adds strength to the solutions—yet we have never noticed any very marked effect from these homeopathic doses of salt.

In reality, there is no such entity as disease to be cast out of the system, as a devil is exorcised. There is no line to which we can say all is right, and beyond which all is wrong. The dominion of Pathology extends into the region of Physiology, and the wisdom of God in the laws of disease is as manifest as in the laws of health. The whole catalogue of specifics has been reduced to not more than half a dozen—such as quinine for ague, and sulphur for itch—though the general belief in them still continues, to the profit of nostrum-venders. But, to this particular "cure."

It is not always advisable to relieve nausea, even if we could, as it may be better to let it "come up." A man fills his stomach with green vegetables, and when enough of their undigested or poisonous properties has been absorbed into his system to produce an effect, he becomes "sick at the stomach," and Nature signifies an intention to evacuate the surplus. Sometimes there results an immediate clearance upwards or downwards, or both, forming an attack of cholera morbus. And at other times it happens that the stomach becomes settled, and there is a labored digestion of the offending matter, with colic-pains and constipation. Now to the man who is about to throw up these crude contents of the stomach, the Tribune runs with the fraction of a drop of sea-water, to keep him from vomiting. But what if he should vomit? Is there any shorter or more direct method of cure? Physicians are not always out of their heads when they direct an emetic for vomiting, or physic for diarrhea, for these are the processes by which nature expels offensive matters from the system, and it is frequently advisable to encourage them. But homeopathic doses of salt are not worth consideration—they amount to nothing one way or the other.

To the man with colic, the Tribune also carries salt; though we are not informed whether it is a teaspoonful or a ten millionth part of a grain; nor are we told in what way it is used or how it acts. Fortunately for humanity, the natural tendency of nine-tenths of diseases is to produce health, so that life does not depend on any particular system of medication.

We are further informed, that salt may be made serviceable to a person "stunned by a fall," but by a very careless omission, we are not told *how* to use it. So in apoplexy, we are merely advised as if we knew all the details, or as if they could be obtained from any "doctor-book," to use salt both "internally and externally," while invalids generally are in a very every-day sort of a way directed to be put in pickle. This is quite too vague for the use of so important a medicine. Humanity, suffering and dying around us, demands of the Tribune that full particulars as to methods of use should be speedily given, for we are sure that that paper only has a knowledge of some of the discoveries here announced.

Men once wondered how any body could "die with plenty of sage in the garden." The Tribune would have us believe that salt may be, after all, equal in medical virtue to sage.

As to the worm part of this article, we can only say, a friend informs us that he has found the wire-worm, "alive and kicking," in the "lime and salt mixture," at the end of a week.

There is one other use of salt, omitted in the Tribune's enumeration, that is quite as well authenticated as some of those given. It is "good" to put on the tails of naughty birds that won't be caught, and for this purpose it is to be used in doses of a pinch or so, deposited *in cauda*.

But the last sentence of the article, is rather incongruous to the rest. It damps our enthusiasm a little; yet it may be that it only secures the previous part in some way, like the clinching of a nail. It reminds one of the old continental story, of an *Aid* who rode post haste, carrying a valise before him and another behind him, and who, when asked what was in the front valise, replied it "contained orders, and the back valise the counter orders, and that he was in a great hurry for fear he should be too late." It destroys the first sentence which contains the gist of the article, so that the whole is rendered of no force; for any substance must be used in such doses as shall produce sensible effects, in order to become a medicine.

The relation that salt holds to the internal economy of animals, is of an exceedingly intricate character. It is supposed to be connected with the amount of non-azotized matters in the food, with the amount of drink required, with the amount of perspiration, with the amount of gastric juice, with the amount of bile, and with certain peculiarities in the constitution of the urine; and we believe that the full relations of so simple a substance as common salt can be disclosed only under the light of a complete system of Physiology in the "good time coming."

CHERRY CURRANTS.—Mr. Chas. Starr, Jr., of No. 117 Fulton-street, has shown us a bunch of the cherry currants, grown at his residence in Tarrytown, which exceeds in size of berry any thing we have seen in the currant line. The bunch was said to be an average one on a young bush, set last summer, and contains a dozen berries, some of them measuring 1¼ inches in circumference, and the average size is full 1¼ inches.

EXHIBITIONS—SHOWS—FAIRS.

These three words are used in the same sense, or synonymously, in this country; thus, the same society announces, one year, its fair, the next its show, and the next its exhibition. There is, however, a difference in the meaning of these words, and it is desirable to secure some degree of uniformity.

A Fair, in other countries, signifies a place of sale, or, more nearly, a market-day, occurring at long but regular intervals—as once a year, once in six months, once a quarter, or otherwise. In this country, ladies hold fairs for the sale of their work for some charitable purpose. In England, hese are called Fancy Fairs. At Jamesburg, N. J., the farmers meet together once a year, and each one offers for sale whatever he may have to part with. This is legitimately a *fair*.

A Show is a display of the *outside* qualities of an object. It is a general term embracing every thing set forth, but referring merely to that which strikes the eye; a *show* is not a matter of taste or action, but merely a curiosity.

An Exhibition, on the contrary, presents some effort of skill, talent or genius.

Show is the more vulgar term. A fop *shows* his clothes. We *show* wild beasts; we *exhibit* paintings. One man *shows* a monster ox; another *exhibits* his skill in breeding a valuable class of animals, which may make less *show* but are more prized than the overgrown specimen. One *shows* a tree of unnatural growth; another *exhibits* his skill in shaping and combining pieces of wood so as to produce the most perfect implement. The conjurer *shows* his tricks; the artist makes an *exhibition* of his works. We *show* our dress; we *exhibit* our traits of character. We look at a *show*; we study an *exhibition*.

We go to a *fair* to buy or sell; we go to a *show* to see and be seen; we go to an *exhibition* to examine the works of others and derive new thoughts and new principles for our own future guidance.

Some of our annual agricultural gatherings are not only exhibitions, but also at the same time are fairs and shows. Some go to drink and carouse and see the *show*. Some go to sell or buy animals, seeds, &c., at the *fair*; while some go to learn what agricultural improvements have been made and how they have been made. The first of these persons will judge of a reaper by its paint, or its outward appearance; the last will examine it carefully to see if it has the combination and arrangement of parts necessary to make it an effective implement. The first only benefits the *show*, by contributing to its funds; the last does the same thing for the *exhibition*, and at the same time benefits himself and neighbors by the information he gathers and carries home.

As our annual gatherings are designed for the display of improvements, of inculcating information in cultivation, stock breeding, use of implements, &c.; we think they should be uniformly styled Exhibitions, leaving fairs for sales gatherings, and shows for *show-men*. To call them *cattle shows*, does not convey their full import. Where provision is made for sales of stock, &c., let them be styled exhibitions and fairs, thus—the New-York State Agricultural Exhibition and Fair. We trust our cotemporaries will discuss this subject; and, if possible, let us have some uniformity in the use of terms.

MEAT IN LONDON.

Smithfield has been the great cattle market of London for more than six hundred years, but its last sales' day occurred on Monday, June 11th. Hereafter the new Metropolitan market will take its place. Some idea of the amount of meat consumed in London, may be gathered from the sales of animals at Smithfield. We chance to have before us the official report for 1848, from which it appears that there were sold during that year 240,000 horned cattle, for $20,720,000—averaging $92.50 per head; 1,650,000 sheep, for $14,725,000—averaging $9.75 per head; 27,300 calves, for $511,875—averaging $18 75c. per head; and 40,000 pigs, for $300,000—averaging $7.50 per head.

Total number of animals, 1,857,300, sold for $36,256,875.

The population of London for that year was 2,172,386, which gives an average annual expenditure of $16.69 for meat by each man, woman and child.

In looking over some documents on this subject, we notice a few curious circumstances, one of which is the following: In the year 1698, with a population of 674,000, there were sold in Smithfield market 900,000 calves and 250,000 pigs, while in 1848—150 years after, and with a population of 2,172,386—the sales were only 27,300 calves and 40,000 pigs. That is, the consumption of these animals per individual was nearly 25 times greater 150 years ago than now.

Red Antwerp Raspberries.—We have received from Messrs. Geo. Seymour & Co., of South Norwalk, Conn., a basket of these superb berries, which, for size and flavor, we have never seen surpassed. They justly occupy the first rank among the small fruits now in our market. If any one is incredulous, their doubts will be removed by the samples they will find on sale at Hawley, Smith & Carman's, Nos. 15 and 16 Fulton Market.

Guano for Insects.—A correspondent of the Horticulturist says: "Some time last summer, while budding some young peaches, I found that ants had taken possession of some ten feet in one row. They very earnestly resisted my attempts to inoculate the trees, inflicting many unpleasant wounds on my hands and arms. In order to disperse the warlike little nation, I sprinkled near a pint of fine guano along the little ridges. This threw them into immediate consternation. I noticed little collections of winged ants huddled close together, and seeming to be quiet, while those without wings ran about in great agitation. The following day not a single insect could be found where the day previous they appeared to be innumerable."

CROPS IN NEW-YORK.

During the past week we passed over the southern tier of counties of New-York, as far west as Elmira, and thence north-west to East Bloomfield. We noticed that wheat and rye are already putting on thier golden hue preparatory to the harvest; that the corn crop has rallied vigorously under the enlivening influence of the sun's rays during the past ten days; and that all the other summer crops promise to make old mother earth fairly groan under the abundant harvest.

The fruit crop will also be large; we think apples and pears never promised so heavy a yield. A very intelligent farmer near Canandaigua remarked that the wheat crop appeared larger than it had been in twenty years, and they were calculating on an average of twenty-five bushels per acre. One farmer, last year, realized this large product on the greater part of 100 acres, though he had declared for weeks before the harvest that the weavel had reduced it to five bushels per acre. There is very little complaint of insects this year in that region.

The route of the New-York and Erie Railroad is, at this season, a most delightful one to the tourist. The earth's carpet of green is of the most brilliant hue, while the forests were never more luxuriant; and the hillsides are variegated with flowers of every color, including the sumach, elder, and above all, the beautiful kalmia or mountain laurel, whose blush white flowers adorn the mountain even to the summit.

Great Fields of Wheat.—The Fayetteville (N. C.) Observer says that Henry K. Burgwyn, on the Roanoke, has a field of 900 acres of wheat, which good judges estimate will yield 20 bushels to the acre, or 18,000 bushels in all, worth at present prices about $50,000. Mr. Thomas Burgwyn has a field also of 900 acres in wheat, almost as good. These gentlemen cultivate, besides, large fields of corn, oats, &c.

An Extensive Farmer.—The Norfolk (Va.) Herald says it is stated as an ascertained fact, that Mr. Wm. Allen, of Claremont, on James River, will raise for sale this year *fifty thousand* bushels of wheat; and, without some unforeseen occurrence, *five thousand* barrels of corn.

Cotton Rafted—A New Invention.—A correspondent of the National Intelligencer, writing from this city, says: "An enterprising gentleman, named G. R. Griffith, has been perfecting an invention by which cotton may be got to market and the seaboard, in spite of low water in the Southern rivers; and left here this afternoon for the South to demonstrate the practicability of his invention to the planters. The plan is very simple, being merely the adoption of a kind of vulcanized India rubber bag, so constructed that any number of them may be connected together in the fashion of a raft, and either towed down the shallow streams by a steamer of light draft, or piloted by hands on the cotton—two men being able to manage one hundred bales. Twelve inches of water is

amply sufficient for the transportation of cotton by means of these patent floaters; and if they can be successfully introduced, the condition of the streams hereafter will be no barrier to supplying the markets with the great southern staple. Mr. Griffith gave a practical exhibition of his inventions at this port a few days since, and I believe entirely satisfied those present of the feasibility of the plan."

CANKER WORMS.—Mr. William Plumer, of Lexington, a correspondent of the Boston Journal, recommends covering the ground under apple trees with muriate of lime, as a remedy for the destructive ravages of the canker worm. This preparation should be applied immediately, and dug in the Fall. Mr. Plumer has seen it tried with excellent success. The next Spring after the application, not a canker worm was to be seen in the trees to which it was applied. He says it has been tested both in this country and in England, and in every case with perfect success.

A STUMP MACHINE.—Mr. B. P. Foster, of Flint, Genesee, writing in the Michigan Farmer, says he has a stump machine that is cheap and works well where land has been cleared from 12 to 15 years; that is, oak land. It is made as follows: "Get a pole, tamarack is best, 14 inches at the butt, 8 at the top, and from 35 to 40 feet long. Then make a band 1¼ inches square, and put it on one end. Make a very large hook, weighing 25 pounds, and a link and clevis to make it about three feet long; have the hook stand toward the top of the lever. Hook it to a large root, and hug the stumps with the lever and keep going around till the stump comes out. If other stumps are in the way, take a pole ten feet long, put one end on the ground, the other on the stump, and let the lever run up over it." Mr. Foster says, "I have pulled out from three to six acres in a day, or sixty stumps. What I can not pull out, I burn. I dig away the dirt first, and then set fire to them. Thus I make my land free from stumps. Cost of machine irons from $10 to $15."

BATTLE AMONG BEES.—The Toledo Republican of the 13th ult. says, "A gentleman living near Adrian relates a singular circumstance which occurred on his farm. A few days ago a new swarm came out of their paternal hive, and gathered around their young queen in the warm, sunlit atmosphere. But instead of going to some neighboring tree or shrub, and forming a hanging cluster, as has invariably been the rule with all predecessors with whom we have ever been acquainted, they settled on a hive and began a murderous attack upon the peaceful inmates. The unsuspecting workers were taken by surprise, and many of them were killed by the invaders before they become fully aroused, when the conflict became obstinate. The fact that most of the working bees of the hive were out gathering honey, gave the new swarm all the advantage, and though the battle lasted all day, they finally triumphed. Thousands of dead bodies were dragged to the entrance and thrown on the ground each hour."

DR. WATERBURY of this city has examined the jaw-bone of a mummied bull, in the Egyptian Museum, and has ascertained the animal to have been of the species of our common ox, and that the bone does not differ in size from that of a full-grown ox of the present day.

WOOL GROWERS' ASSOCIATION OF WSETERN NEW-YORK.—This Association, at their recent meeting at Bath, resolved to hold their next annual show (1856) at whichever of the following places shall hold out the greatest inducements, viz: Avon, Bath, Canandaigua, or Penn Yan. The following officers were chosen for the ensuing year:

President—Hon. G. Denniston, Prattsburg, Steuben Co., N. Y.

Vice-Presidents—Hector Hitchcock, Livingston Co.; W. T. Remer, Yates; John D. Patterson, Chatauque; G.W. Wheeler, Steuben; T. C. Peters, Genesee; Thos. P. Peck, Ontario; H. T. Brooks, Wyoming; Rawson Harmon, Monroe; Charles Morrell, Tompkins; Amos Perrin, Alleghany; James H. Hotchkin, Steuben; Matthias Hutchinson, Cayuga; Gardiner Gould, Orleans; Lewis F. Allen, Erie; Hiram McCollum, Niagara; Albert G. Percy, Wayne.

Corresponding Secretaries—Wm. S. Judd, Penn Yan, Yates; A. Y. Baker, Urbana, Steuben; N. B. Mann, Livingston; Wm. A. Cook, Lima, Livingston; W.T. Remer, Penn Yan; James Lyon, Bath, Steuben; Wm. B. Pratt, Prattsburg, do.

Treasurer—Hon. Reuben Robie, Bath, Steuben Co.

Recording Secretary—Chas. D. Champlin, Urbana, Steuben Co.

For the American Agriculturist.

COUCH GRASS—SPANISH MOSS—CORN CHAMOMILE OR HORN MAYWEED, &C.

In the article on the "Couch or Twitch Grass" in the *American Agriculturist*, in February last, I described the common *Quack Grass* of this vicinity as the *Triticum repens*. Although the description is correct, I gave the wrong name. It is the *Digitaria sanginalis* of Linn, and is described in the Natural History of New-York, Botany, vol. 2, p. 423, as the "Crab-grass," and is figured in the same volume, plate 146. My mistake arose from a mistake with the labels of the specimens in my herbareum, and when discovered, very soon after, I was prevented from making a correction, first by ill health and later by pressing duties.

In an article on "Spanish Moss," in a late number of your paper, the inquiry is made if there are any truly ærial plants, drawing nourishment from the air and water, rather than the material they grow upon? There are many such. Most *lichens* (a low order of plants) do so. They grow on rocks, dead wood, &c., and draw their nourishment from other sources. Higher kinds of plants also sometimes grow in a similar manner. Of the very family to which the Spanish moss belongs (*Bromeliaceæ*), Dr. Lindley remarks, "They are all capable of existing in a dry, hot air, without contact with earth; on which account they are favorites in South American gardens, where they are suspended from the buildings, or hung to the balustrades of the balconies; situations in which they flower abundantly, filling the air with fragrance."

The "Spanish moss" (*Tillandsio usneoides*) is not a true moss, botanically speaking, but with many of the true mosses, the living plant lives upon the bodies of the dead, and thus accumulate many feet in thickness.

A new troublesome weed has made its appearance within the last few years in Central New-York. It is known by the names "Corn Chamomile," "Horn Mayweed," &c. (*Anthemis arvensis Linn.*) It much resembles the May-weed, but is larger, coarser, branches more, nearer the base, has a less fetid odor, flatter, larger heads, and grows taller. The flowers are in shape like those of the ox-eye daisy, but are smaller. The plant is variable, and presents, under different circumstances, very different general characters. It was at first mistaken by farmers for May-weed (*Maruta*), which it often closely resembles; and although known to all who had paid any especial attention to botany, was not considered dangerous, as it is not so described in any botanical work I have seen. I shall make further observations on its growth during the summer.

WM. H. BREWER.

OVID, N. Y., July 6, 1855.

THE "FINE ART"—OF PATCHING.

A lady friend—a spinster—who had seen years enough to constitute her a good judge, used to say in our hearing, that if she could see a man's socks, six months after his marriage, she could always tell whether he would be a rich or a poor man. If they were well and neatly darned, it indicated an ingenious, economical wife, and with such a helpmeet any man would succeed—she never knew it fail. We incline to the opinion that the old lady was more than half right, but we will not discuss the matter. Here is something, from an English paper, on the belles-lettres department of the household—for to patch well is, in truth, a "fine art," and one requiring as much skill as to paint, or sing, or play:

To patch—how vulgar is the term! Yet it is an operation requiring far more skill than does the making of a new garment; and, when well executed, may save the purchase of many a costly one; the most expensive robe may, by accident, be torn, or spotted, the first day of its wear; the piece inserted in lieu of the damaged one is a patch. If a figured material, the pattern has to be exactly matched; in all cases the insertion must be made without pucker, and the kind of seam to be such as, though strong, will be least apparent, the corners must be turned with neatness. Is not this an art which requires teaching?

So of darning, much instruction is necessary as to the number of threads to be left by the needle according to the kind of fabric; then there is the kind of thread or yarn most suitable, which requires experience to determine; where the article is coarse, the chief attention is directed to expedition, but a costly article of embroidery on muslin can only be well darned with ravelings of a similar muslin; such particulars do not come to the girl by inspiration, they must be *taught*, or left to be acquired by dearly-bought experience.

The third mode of repair is well understood and practised by our continental neighbors, though rarely in this country. The stocking stitch is neither more difficult nor tedious than the darn, yet how many pairs of stockings are lost for want of knowing it when a hole happens to be above-shoe? Practice in lace stitches is more desirable, particularly for repairing lace of the more costly descriptions. The deficiency of a single loop, when lace is sent to be washed, often becomes a large hole during the operation, and thus the beauty of the lace is destroyed. Indeed, lace when duly mended, on the appearance of even the smallest crack, may, with little trouble, be made to last twice or thrice the usual term of its duration. So the shawl stitch is never taught in this country, though, by employing it with ravelings from the shawl itself, the most costly cashmere can be repaired without a possibility of discovering the inserted part.

Proficiency in such *useful* works might well merit as much approbation as is now bestowed upon crotchet or other fancy works, and might be considered as equally desirable qualifications in a tradesman's governess, as music. In populous places it might well answer to establish schools where the art of mending apparel should be the chief object of instruction; a month or two spent in it might be sufficient for the damsel, already a good plain needle-worker. It must further be observed, that without a practical knowledge of needle-work, no young lady can judge whether her servant has or has not done a reasonable quantity of it in a given time; and if this be true as to the plain seam, it is still more essential in regard to mending of all kinds.

Scrap-Book.

"A little humor now and then,
Is relished by the best of men."

A VENTRILOQUIST ON THE DOCK.

Quite an excitement occurred at one of the southern steamboat wharves, a short time since.

The hands on one of our steamers were engaged in rolling off a cask, when, to the consternation and surprise of the persons engaged in that operation, a voice was heard within the cask.

"Roll it easy—Oh! these darned nails hurt; I'd rather pay my passage than stand all this."

Holding up their hands, their visuals expanded to the size of saucers, the two laborers exclaimed—

"That beats the d—."

The mate coming up at this moment, and entirely unaware of the cause of delay, commenced cursing the affrighted fellows for dilatoriness, when from within the voice again came forth—

"You're nobody; let me out of this confounded cask."

"What's that?" said the mate.

"Why it's me!" said the voice; "I want to get out of here—I wont stand this any longer!"

"Up-end the cask," said the mate.

"Oh don't—you'll kill me!" said the voice. "These nails prick me. Look out! *dont!*" again cried the casked up individual, as the men were turning it over.

"Cooper," said the mate, "unhead this cask, and take out that man."

As the adz sundered the hoop, and the head was coming out, the voice again broke forth—

"Be easy, now, do!—I don't want to be caught."

Quite a crowd had now gathered around the "scene of action," when, to the utter astonishment of the bystanders, a loud, guttural laugh broke forth, which made our hair stand on end, and the cask was filled with bacon!

"What does it mean?" says one.

"I swear it beats my time," said the mate, severely scratching his head.

We enjoyed the joke too well to "blow," as we walked on arm-in-arm with the "Fakir of Ava," the renowned ventriloquist and magician.—*Ex.*

THE SYMPATHIZING WOMAN.

If we were called upon to describe Mrs. Dobbs, we should, without hestitation, call her a sympathizing woman. Nobody was troubled with any malady she hadn't suffered. "She knew all about it by experience, and could sympathize with them from the bottom of her heart."

Bob Turner was a wag, and when one day he saw Mrs. Dobbs coming along the road toward his house, he knew that, in the absence of his wife, he should be called upon to entertain her, so he resolved to play a little on the good woman's abundant store of sympathy.

Hastily procuring a large blanket, he rolled himself up in it, and threw himself on a sofa near by.

"Why, good gracious. Mr. Turner, are you sick?" asked Mrs. Dobbs, as she saw his position.

"Oh, dreadfully!" groaned the imaginary invalid.

"What's the matter?"

"Oh, a great many things. First and foremost I have got a congestion of the brain."

"That's dreadful," sighed Mrs. Dobbs. "I came pretty near dying of it ten years come next spring. What else?"

"Dropsy," again groned Bob.

"There I can truly sympathize with you. I was badly troubled with it, but finally got over it."

"Neuralgia," continued Bob.

"Nobody can tell, Mr. Turner, what I've suffered from neuralgia. It's an awful complaint."

"Then again, I'm very much distressed by inflammation of the bowels."

"If you've got that, I pity you," commented Mrs. D.; "for three years steady I was afflicted with it, and I don't think I've fully recovered yet."

"Rheumatism," added Bob.

"Yes, that's pretty likely to go along with neuralgia. It did with me."

"Toothache," suggested Bob.

"There have been times, Mr. Turner," said the sympathizing woman, "when I tho't I should have gone distracted with the toothache."

"Then," said Bob, who having temporarily ran out of his stock of medical terms, resorted to a scientific name, "I'm very much afraid I've got the tethyasaurus."

"I shouldn't be at all surprised," said the ever-ready Mrs. Dobbs; "I had it when I was young."

Though it was with the utmost difficulty that he could resist laughing, Bob continued: "I'm suffering a great deal from a sprained ankle."

"Then you can sympathize with me, Mr. Turner. I sprained mine when I was coming along."

"But that isn't the worst of it."

"What is it?" asked Mrs. Dobbs, with curiosity.

"I wouldn't tell any one but you, Mrs. Dobbs, but the fact is"—here Bob groaned—"I'm afraid, and the doctor agrees with me, that my reason is affected—that, in short, I'm a little crazy!"

Bob took breath, and wondered what Mrs. Dobbs would say to that.

"Oh, Mr. Turner, is it possible!" exclaimed the lady. "It's horrible! I know it is! I frequently have spells of being out of my head myself!"

Bob could stand it no longer; he burst into a roar of laughter, which Mrs. Dobbs taking for the precursor of a violent paroxysm of insanity, she was led to take a hurried leave.

Brains.—Gov. Trumbull, of Connecticut, on the occasion of a grand riot, ascended a block, and attempted by a speech to quiet the people; when a random missile hitting him in the head, felled him to the ground. He was badly hurt; and as his friends were carrying him into his house, his wife met him at the door and exclaimed:

"Why my husband, they have knocked your brains out!"

"No they haven't," said the Governor; "if I'd had any brains I shouldn't have gone there."

An Urchin in a Bad Fix.—Little boys, when they come late to school, have to bring a written excuse explaining the cause of their tardiness. Some days since an urchin, in a city school, came extremely late, but without the least fear or anxiety depicted on his countenance. He had a 'scuse. On handing it to the teacher it was opened, and read thus: "Missus—*Whale the beaver* for running away." The model 'scuse was accepted, and the little fellow was accordingly admonished in the region of his "sit-down-upons."

Steam.—At a railway station, an old lady said to a very pompous looking gentleman who was talking about steam communication, "Pray, sir, what is steam?"

"Steam, ma'am, is, ah!—steam is, ah!—steam is—steam!"

"I knew that chap couldn't tell ye," said a roough-looking fellow, standing by, "but steam is a bucket of water in a tremdous perspiration."

Suggestive.—One day a little girl, about five years old, heard a preacher of the Chaddand order praying most lustily, till the roof rang with the strength of his supplication. Turning to her mother, and beckoning the maternal ear down to speaking distance, she whispered, "Mother, don't you think that if he lived nearer to God he wouldn't have to talk so loud?"

Patience.—"You can do any thing if you will have patience," says our old fogy uncle, who made his fortune by being planted in the old town when corner lots were worth only ten dollars an acre, and waited till he woke up one morning to find them worth $300 a foot.

"Water may be carried in a sieve if you can only wait."

"How long?" queries impudent and impatient Young America, who can hardly wait for his bread or the old man's obituary.

"Till it *freezes!*"

Recipe for Matrimonial Happiness.—Preserve the privacies of your house, marriage state, heart, from father, mother, sister, brother, aunt, and all the world. You two with God's help, build your own quiet world; every third or fourth one whom you draw into it with you will form a party, and stand between you two. That should never be. Promise this to each other. Renew the vow at each tempation. You will find your account in it. Your souls will grow, as it were together, and at last they will become

as one. Ah, if many a young pair had on their wedding day known this secret, how many marriages were happier than—alas!—they are.

TO A NEWLY WEDDED COUPLE.

I saw two clouds at morning,
Tinged with the rising sun;
And in the dawn they floated on,
And mingled into one;
I thought that morning cloud was blest,
It moved so sweetly to the west.

I saw two summer currents
Flow smoothly to their meeting,
And join their course, with silent force,
In peace each other greeting;
Calm was their course thro' banks of green,
While dimpling eddies played between.

Such be your gentle motion,
Till life's last pulse shall beat;
Like summer's beam and summer's stream,
Float on, in joy, to meet
A calmer sea, where storms shall cease—
A purer sky, where all is peace! BRAINARD.

JOHN RANDOLPH OF ROANOKE.

Sitting one day opposite a gentleman at a hotel dinner-table in Richmond, he observed that he was eating one of those luxurious soft crabs of that region, and that, as was the custom of the hotel, a glass of milk had been placed near his plate; looking up from his own, he said in a thin piping voice:

"That's a singular dish of yonrs, Sir, very singular; crabs and milk! Juba, bring me a bowl of milk, and crumble some crabs in it!"

At the same hotel, he said to a waiter, in the temporary absence of Juba, handing to him at the same time his cup and saucer:

"Take that away—change it."

"What do you want, Mr. Randolph?" asked the waiter respectfully. "Do you want coffee or tea?"

"If that stuff is tea," said he, "give me coffee, if it is coffee, bring me tea; I want a change."

Most readers have heard, perhaps, of his reply to a well known and highly respectable gentleman of the south, who introduced himself to him while standing and conversing with some friends, with—

"I should be pleased to make the acquaintance of so distinguished a public servant as Mr. Randolph. I am from the city of Baltimore—my name is Blunt."

"Blunt, eh?" replied Mr. Randolph, "I should think so, Sir;" and he deigned him no further notice.

Equally familiar to many, it may, will be found his reply to a gentleman who rather forced himself upon Mr. Randolph's notice, while engaged in conversation with others in a hotel in Virginia.

"I have had the pleasure, Mr. Randolph, recently of passing your house."

"I am glad of it," said Mr. Randolph, "I hope you will always do it, Sir."

On one occasion, at Washington, a brother member of Congress was enlightening Mr. Randolph as to the manner of "shopping" at the capital. "The merchants," said he, have two prices—an "asking price, and a taking price." I used to send my wife to make all the purchases for the family, by which we made a saving of fifteen to twenty per cent."

"I had rather *my* wife," said Randolph, bitterly, "should make a living in any other way but *one*, than that!"

Being a confirmed old bachelor, the remark was no less comical than severe.

A western editor, who is a bachelor says: "We never cared a farthing about getting married, until we attended a bachelor's funeral."

A ROMANTIC INCIDENT.

A correspondent of the Manchester Mirror, relates an interesting incident, which he says occurred in Manchester. He states that in the fall of 1847, a young man came to the city in quest of employment. After weeks of unsuccessful search he found himself without prospect of work, and considerably in debt for board. In despair, he had made arrangements for disposing of his clothes by auction in order to defray his debts, when a letter was sent to him containing a twenty dollar bill, and directing him to apply for the situation of card-stripper to the overseer of one of the corporations. The letter also requested him to sign a note of hand for the amount loaned, and to place it in a certain unoccupied box in the Post Office, when it would be called for by the lender. The young man did as requested, and received the situation for which he had applied, the overseer stating that it had been procured for him by the earnest solicitations of a young lady. Years passed away, and all attempts to discover the name of his creditor were unavailing. The young man prospered in business, and at length plighted his affections to an estimable young lady with whom he had accidentally become acquainted. On the day before their marriage he received a letter requesting him to call at a certain place, and pay the note for twenty dollars, with interest, which he had signed some years before. Anxious to settle an indebtedness which, from the mystery of the whole affair, had occasioned him many hours of unhappiness, he hastened to the place indicated, and was ushered by a domestic into a parlor where, to his infinite astonishment, he discovered in the person of his unknown benefactor, the lady to whom, upon the next day, he was to unite his earthly fortunes. She was awaiting him with the note in her hand. It was her first business transaction, and the partnership which followed bids fair to continue happily through life.

CURRAN'S INGENUITY.—A farmer attending a fair with a hundred pounds in his pocket, took the precaution of depositing it in the hands of the landlord of the public house at which he stopped. Having occasion for it shortly afterwards, he resorted to mine host for payment. But the landlord, too deep for the countryman, wondered what he meant, and was quite sure no such sum had ever been lodged in his hands by the astonished rustic. After ineffectual appeals to the recollection, and finally to the honor of Bardolph, the farmer applied to Curran for advice.

"Have patience, my friend," said Curran, "speak to the landlord civilly—tell him you have left your money with some other person. Take a friend with you, and lodge with him another hundred in the presence of your friend; then come to me."

He did so, and returned to his legal friend.

"And now I can't see how I am to be the better off for this, if I get my second hundred back again. What is now to be done?"

"Go and ask him for it when he is alone."

"Aye, sir, asking will not do, I am afraid, without my witness, at any rate."

"Never mind, take, my advice," said the counsel; "do as I bid you, and return to me."

The farmer returned with his hundred, glad to have that again safely in his possession.

"Now, sir, I must be content; but I don't see as I am much better off."

"Well," said the counsel, "now take your friend with you, and ask the landlord for the hundred pounds your friend saw you leave with him."

We need not add that the wily landlord found he had been taken off his guard, while our honest friend returned to thank his counsel, exultingly, with both hundred in his pocket.

ONE HAPPY HEART.—Have you made one happy heart to-day? Envied privilege. How calmly you can seek your pillow! how sweetly sleep! In all this world there is nothing so sweet as giving comfort to the distressed, as getting a sun ray into a gloomy heart. Children of sorrow meet us wherever we turn; there is no moment that tears are not shed, and sighs uttered. Yet how many of those tears, those sighs, are caused by our own thoughtlessness! How many a daughter wrings the very soul of a fond mother by acts of unkindness and ingratitude! How many husbands, by one little word, make a whole day of sad hours and unkind thoughts! How many wives, by angry recriminations, estrange and embitter their loving hearts! How many brothers and sisters meet but to vex and injure each other, making wounds that no human heart can heal! Ah! if each one worked upon this maxim day by day—"strive to make some heart happy"—jealousy, revenge, madness, hate, with their kindred evil associates, would forever leave the earth. Our minds would be so occupied in the contemplation of adding to the pleasures of others, that there would be no room for the ugly fiends of discord. Try it, ye discontented, forever grumbling devotees of sorrow, self-caused; it will make that little part of the world in which you move as fair as Eden.

SACREDNESS OF TEARS.—Dr. Johnson observes: There is a sacredness in tears. They are not a mark of weakness, but of power. They speak more eloquently than ten thousand tongues. They are the messengers of overwhelming grief, of deep contrition, of unspeakable love. If there were wanting any arguments to prove that man is not mortal, I would look for it in the strong convulsive emotions of the breast, when the soul has been deeply agitated, when the fountains of feeling are arising, and when the tears are gushing forth in crystal streams. Oh, speak not harshly to the stricken one, weeping in silence. Break not the deep solemnity by rude laughter or intrusive footsteps. Despise not woman's tears—they are what made an angel. Scoff not if the stern heart of manhood is sometimes melted to tears—they are what help to elevate him above the brute. I love to see tears of affection. They are painted tokens but still most holy. There is a pleasure in tears—an awful pleasure. If there were none on earth to shed a tear for me, I should be loth to live; and if no one might weep over my grave I could never die in peace.

Markets.

REMARKS.—For the first time in some weeks, we quote a small advance in Flour, of 25c. to 50c. per bbl. on the different grades. This, however, has resulted from a temporary short supply, as the old stock on hand is pretty much exhausted, and the new has not yet come in. There must be enough for the current demands of retailers and consumers, and then there were several contracts for delivery the first week in July, made from one to three months since, and considerable quantities have been required for the settlement of these contracts. These causes have produced the present advance. That a

continuance of the present prices is not looked for by dealers, is evident from the fact, that contracts have been made this week for fair Southern Ohio Flour, deliverable in October, at $7 75, and for good New-York State brands, deliverable in September and October, at $7 25. The prospect of the incoming wheat crop still continues good, though with a rather increased sprinkling of unfavorable reports of injuries from the fly and weevil. An intelligent correspondent, living 32 miles north-west of Cincinnati, in Oxford Co., Ohio, writes July 3d: "The grain harvest has just commenced here—wheat crop light from injury last winter; but except in this vicinity it is very good all over the west. The worst reports are from our correspondents in western New-York, but these apply, thus far, to isolated localities only. The crop is now safe in the Southern and Middle States, and in the greater portion of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and there is a certainty of much more than the average yield. We hope in a few days to give the same report of New-York, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Canada. But there is probably less old grain now in the country than there has been at the same season for many years past. This, with the prospective foreign demand, will prevent as low prices as have been current in some former years, when the yield has been equally great.

Corn has improved upon last week's quotations several cents per bushel. Oats are unchanged, there having been a decline which is nearly recovered.

Cotton fell off largely on the receipt of the America's News, but it has partially recovered, and now stands from ⅛c. to ¼c. lower than per our last.

The Weather has been in marked contrast with the previous week. We have not had a hot day during the past week. There have been frequent showers, but they have not been succeeded by the hot, sultry weather so productive of rust to the wheat crop. Every variety of summer vegetables and fruits, are growing with great luxuriance.

PRODUCE MARKET.

TUESDAY, July 10, 1855.

The prices given in our reports from week to week, are the average wholesale prices obtained by producers, and not those at which produce is sold from the market. The variations in prices refer chiefly to the quality of the articles.

The weather to-day is quite cool, and the market good. Potatoes are less plentiful just now, the farmers being employed in haying. White Turnips are flat. Cherries are abundant and pass off slowly. The market is well supplied with Raspberries, some very fine, especially the Antwerps. A few Pears are in market from Norfolk, Va., and bring $5 ℔ bbl. The warm weather has filled the market with "Green Cheese," which, once got out of the boxes, is not easily got in again. Butter and Eggs, the same.

VEGETABLES.

Potatoes—Long Island	℔ basket	$1	—@1 12
New-Jersey	℔ bbl.	3 50	@ —
Charleston, round	do	3	—@3 50
Norfolk Mercers	do	3 50	@3 75
Nova Scotia Mercers	℔ bush.	—	@ —
Turnips—White	℔ bbl.	1 25	@ —
Onions—Bermuda Reds	℔ bbl.	2 75	@ —
New-Orleans Reds	do	—	@ —
Connecticut, string	℔ 100 bunch.	4	—@4 50
Cabbages	℔ 100	4	—@5 —
Cucumbers	do	1 25	@ —
Lettuce	do	50	@ 75
Gooseberries	℔ bus	1 50	@ —
Raspberries—Antwerp	℔ basket	10	@ —
Shrewsbury	do	4	@ 5
Tomatoes		—	@ —
Cherries	℔ lb	4	@ —
Apples	℔ bbl.	$2	—@3 50
Butter—new	℔ lb.	18	@20c.
Orange County	do.	22	@24c.
Cheese	do	8	@10c.
Eggs	℔ doz.	—	@18c.

NEW-YORK CATTLE MARKET.

WEDNESDAY July 11, 1855.

The total supply of cattle for the week is nearly 3,000. At Allerton's we find 2,116, which is an increase over last week of about 200. The prices to-day rule pretty much the same as last week, with livelier sales. It is not likely that the market will run much higher this season. Speculators appear to be quiet at present, having probably been burnt enough for once to dread the fire.

The quality of the cattle is rather ordinary, affording good specimens of both extremes. All will doubtless find sale before night.

The following are about the highest and lowest prices:

Extra quality	11@11¼c.
Good retailing quality	10@11c.
Inferior do. do.	9@10c.
Veals	4@5½c.
Swine, alive	5½@6c.
" dead	7@8c.
Cows and Calves	$25@$60.

Washington Yards, Forty-fourth-street.
A. M. ALLERTON, Proprietor.

	RECEIVED DURING THE WEEK.	IN MARKET TO-DAY.
Beeves	2116	2116
Cows	20	—
Veals	445	—
Sheep and lambs	1367	—
Swine	2111	—

Of these there came by the Erie Railroad—beeves, 1133; Sheep —; Swine 1137.
By the Harlem Railroad—Beeves 112; Cows 20; Veals 431; Sheep and Lambs —; Swine 1114.
By the Hudson River Railroad 423; Calves 14; Sheep and Lambs 153; Swine 265.
By the Hudson River Boats—Beeves 439; Swine 709.
New-York State furnished—beeves 116
Ohio, " 619
Indiana, " 44
Illinois, " 993
Texas " —
Kentucky, " 108
Michigan, " —
Iowa, " 124

The report of sales for the week, at Browning's, are as follows:

Sheep and Lambs	5876
Beeves	567
Veals	58
Cows and Calves	21

The following sales were made at Chamberlain's:

151 Beef Cattle	9@12c.
65 Cows and Calves	$25@$55
5,240 Sheep and Lambs	$2½@$7.
204 Veals	4@7c.

There is an abundant supply of sheep on hand, mostly of mean quality. Lambs have been in good demand. The sales on Friday and Saturday were the best of the season. Mr. McGraw reports sales of 2,184, at an average of $3 47. Mr. McCarty's sales amount to 1,900.

PRICES CURRENT.

Produce, Groceries, Provisions, &c., &c.

Ashes—			
Pot, 1st sort, 1855	℔ 100 lb.	—	—@ 6 50
Pearl, 1st sort, 1855		6 50	@— —
Bristles—			
American, Gray and White		— 15	@—50
Beeswax—			
American Yellow		26	@— 27½
Coal—			
Liverpool Orrel	℔ chaldron	—	@ 7 50
Scotch		—	@ —
Sidney		5 75	@ 6 —
Pictou		5 25	@— —
Anthracite	℔ 2,000 lb.	5 50	@— —
Cotton Bagging—			
Gunny Cloth	℔ yard	— 12½	@— —

Cotton—	*Upland.*	*Florida.*	*Mobile.*	*N. O. & Texas.*
Ordinary	9¼	9¼	9¼	9¼
Middling	10¼	10¼	10¼	10¼
Middling Fair	11¼	11¼	11¼	12
Fair	12	12	12½	13

Flax—			
Jersey	℔ lb.	— 8	@— 9
Flour and Meal—			
State, common brands		8 50	@— —
State, straight brands		8 63	@— —
State, favorite brands		8 75	@— —
Western, mixed do		8 81	@— —
Michigan and Indiana, straight do		9 25	@ 9 50
Michigan, fancy brands		9 62	@— —
Ohio, common to good brands		— —	@ 9 37
Ohio, fancy brands		— —	@ 9 50
Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan, extra do		— —	@10 —
Genesee, fancy brands		9 25	@— —
Genesee, extra brands		10 75	@12 50
Canada		10 37	@11 —
Brandywine		10 25	@10 75
Georgetown		10 25	@10 75
Petersburg City		10 25	@10 75
Richmond Country		— —	@10 50
Alexandria		— —	@10 50
Baltimore, Howard-Street		— —	@10 50
Rye Flour		7 —	@— —
Corn Meal, Jersey		5 —	@— —
Corn Meal, Brandywine		5 25	@— —
Corn Meal, Brandywine	℔ punch	— —	@22 50
Grain—			
Wheat, White Genesee	℔ bush.	— —	@ 1 —
Wheat, do. Canada		— —	@ 2 40
Wheat, Southern, White		2 38	@ 2 45
Wheat, Ohio, White		2 35	@— —
Wheat, Michigan, White		2 40	@ 2 43
Rye, Northern		1 45	@— —
Corn, Round Yellow		— —	@— 95
Corn, Round White		— —	@ 1 06
Corn, Southern White		— —	@ 1 10
Corn, Southern Yellow		— —	@— 96
Corn, Southern Mixed		— —	@— 92
Corn, Western Mixed		— —	@— 93
Corn, Western Yellow		— —	@— —
Barley		1 12	@— —
Oats, River and Canal		— 60	@— —
Oats, New-Jersey		— 56	@— —
Oats, Western		— 62	@— —
Peas, Black-Eyed	℔ bush.	2 50	@— —
Hay—			
North River, in bales			@ 1 06
Molasses—			
New-Orleans	℔ gall.	— 30	@— 32
Porto Rico		— 27	@— 32
Cuba Muscovado		— 26	@— 30
Trinidad Cuba		— 27	@— 29
Cardenas, &c.		— —	@— 26
Provisions—			
Beef, Mess, Country	℔ bbl.	10 50	@13 —
Beef, Mess, City		10 —	@— —
Beef, Mess, extra		16 25	@17 —
Beef, Prime, Country		— —	@ 9 75
Beef, Prime, City		— —	@11 —
Beef, Prime Mess	℔ tce.	21 —	@24 —
Pork, Prime		16 12	@— —
Pork, Clear		20 —	@— —
Pork, Prime Mess		16 50	@— —
Lard, Ohio, prime, in barrels	℔ lb.	— 10	@11 —
Hams, Pickled		— —	@— 9½
Shoulders, Pickled		— —	@— 7½
Beef Hams, in Pickle	℔ bbl.	— —	@16 —
Beef, Smoked	℔ lb.	— —	@— —
Rice—			
Ordinary to fair	℔ 100 lb.	5 25	@ 5 50
Good to prime		5 87	@ 6 25
Salt—			
Turk's Island	℔ bush.	— —	@— 32
St. Martin's		— —	@— —
Liverpool, Ground	℔ sack	— 95	@— —
Liverpool, Fine		1 20	@ 1 30
Liverpool, Fine, Ashton's		1 46	@ — —
Sugar—			
St. Croix	℔ lb.	— 7	@— —
New-Orleans		— 5	@— 6¼
Cuba Muscovado		— 5	@— 6¼
Porto Rico		— 5	@— 6
Havana, White		— 7	@— 7¼
Havana, Brown and Yellow		— 5	@— 7
Tallow—			
American, Prime	℔ lb.	— 11	@— —
Tobacco—			
Virginia	℔ lb	— —	@— 6¼
Kentucky		— 7	@— 13
Maryland		— —	@— —
St. Domingo		— 12	@— 15
Cuba		— 12	@— 20
Yara		— 35	@— 43
Havana, Fillers and Wrappers		— 20	@ 1 —
Florida Wrappers		— 15	@— 60
Connecticut, Seed Leaf		— 6	@— 18
Pennsylvania, Seed Leaf		— —	@— 12
Wool—			
American, Saxony Fleece	℔ lb.	— 38	@— 42
American, Full Blood Merino		— 36	@— 37
American, ¾ and ⅞ Merino		— 30	@— 33
American, Native and ½ Merino		— 25	@— 28
Superfine, Pulled, Country		— 30	@— 32
No. 1, Pulled, Country		— 23	@— 25

Advertisements.

TERMS—(invariably cash before insertion):

Ten cents per line for each insertion.
Advertisements standing one month one-fourth less.
Advertisements standing three months one-third less.
Ten words make a line.
No advertisement counted at less than ten lines.

AYRESHIRE BULL.—FOR SALE, A Thoroughbred Ayreshire BULL, 2 years and 4 mos. old. Bred by Wm. Watson, Esq., of Westchester. Price $250. Apply to WILLIAM REDMOND, No. 30 Pine-st., New-York.
96—100n1213

The Allen Patent Mower Triumphant.

MANY are now inquiring, "What Mower shall I buy?" That question has been satisfactorily answered during the past fortnight.

At a trial at Bedford, Westchester County, in heavy, wet clover, and on rough, stony ground, the ALLEN MOWER performed better than any other in competition, being the only one which cut a smooth, even swath and spread it well; and it came out of the field unscathed, while others were badly broken or seriously injured. It has since been repeatedly tried in New-Jersey, on Long-Island, and other places, and worked admirably, whether in short, thin, fine grass, or in tall, thick and badly-lodged grass or clover. It also works well on a side hill, and on salt meadows.

The draft of this Mower is uncommonly light. It is simple in construction, very strong, and not liable to get out of order, and when so, easily and cheaply repaired.

It is the only Mower perfectly safe to the driver, the gearing being all covered; and he sits so firm in his seat, it is almost impossible to throw him out. In fact, this machine is better fitted for all kinds of work than any Mower yet manufactured.

The following letter from one of the best known and largest farmers in New-Jersey, will testify to its merits:

JAMESBURG, N. J., June 22, 1855.

MR. R. L. ALLEN, New-York:

Sir—I made a trial yesterday with the new Mowing Machine I purchased of you, and do not hesitate to say that the improved [ALLEN] machine is the best I ever saw worked with—and I have seen a goodly number. I have a field of very heavy grass, and it had fallen down and lodged so I could not cut it with the old machine; and the grass was very wet, having rained nearly all day previous to my giving it a trial. I expected to see it choke up, but to my great surprise it choked up but very little, and that was owing to mismanagement. To be plain, Sir, I feel it my duty to inform you that the improved Mower works beautifully, and I am satisfied works nearly one-third lighter for the team than the Mower I used last year, and that was called one of the best in the market. JAMES BUCKELEW.

WOODSTOCK (CONN.) ACADEMY.

This Institution designs to prepare Students for business or for college. Instruction is given in the common and higher English branches, the Latin, Greek and French languages, Music and Drawing.

Especial attention will be paid to the Elements of Agricultural Science.

The FALL TERM will commence Thursday, August 30th, and continue eleven weeks.

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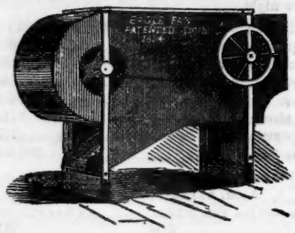

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April 24, 1855. 86—tfn1194

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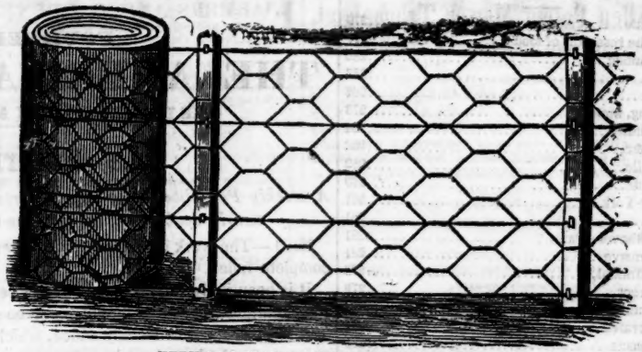

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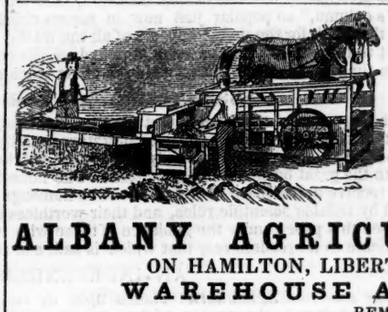

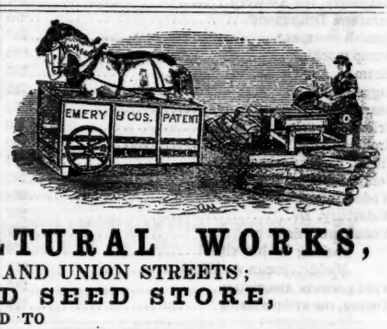

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TABLE OF CONTENTS.

Apple borer, the 279
Atmosphere the reservoir of food 277
Bees, battle among 283
Brains 282
Canker worm 282
Cheese making, hints on 273
Curran's ingenuity 284
Couch grass, &c 282
Corn chamomile 282
Cherry currants 280
Crops in New-York 281
Cotton rafted 281
Exhibitions—Shows—Fairs 281
Farm, an extensive 281
Fuchsias, pyramidal 278
Gender incorrect 279
Grafted chestnut tree 274
Guano, adulterated 274
" for insects 281
Heart, one happy 284
Incident a romantic 284
Ice houses 277
Insects, description of 276
Horses, Abd-el-kader on 275
Hybridization of plants 277
London, meat in 281
Matrimonial happiness 283
Muck, swamp 275
Osage Orange, the 276
Patience 283
Patching a fine art 282
Plants, diseases of 279
Poultry guide, the comic 276
Randolph, John 284
Raspberry, red Antwerp 281
Saracena Drummondi 278
Spanish moss, etc 282
Stump machine 282
Steam 283
Suggestive 283
Tears, sacredness of 284
Tribune on salt 280
Urchin in a bad fix 280
Vitriol, soaking wheat in 274
Ventriloquist on the dock 283
Wedded couple, to a—Poetry 284
Waterbury, Dr 282
Wheat, great fields of 281
" soaking in blue vitriol 274
" Mediterranean vs. White 273
Wool growers association 282
Woman, the sympathizing 282

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